ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

(Reaccredited with 'A' Grade by NAAC)
Karaikudi - 630 003, TAMILNADU

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DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

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M.A (PM&IR)

Paper 2.1

ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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LESSON 1

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

1.1 CONCEPT:

Organization development is a change effort (1) planned, (2) organization-wide, and (3) managed from the top, to (4) increase organization effectiveness and health on an ongoing basis through (5) planned interventions in the organization process using behavioral science knowledge.

1. It is a planned change effort.

An OD program involves systematic diagnosis of the organization, the development of a strategic plan for improvement, and the mobilization of resources to carry out the effort.

2. It involves the total organization.

An organization-development effort is related to a total organization change in the culture or the reward system or the total managerial strategy. There may be tactical efforts, which work with subparts of the organization, but the system to be changed is a total, relatively autonomous organization. This is not necessarily a total corporation or the entire government, but refers to a system which relatively free to determine its own plans and future within very general constraints from the environment.

3. It is managed from top.

In an OD effort the top management of the system has a personal investment in the program and its outcome. They actively participate in the management of the effort. This does not mean they must have both knowledge and commitment to the goals of the program and must actively support the methods used to achieve the goals.

4. It is designed to increase organization effectiveness and health on an ongoing basis.

To understand the goals of the organization development, it is necessary to have some picture of what an ideal effective, healthy organization would look like.

An effective organization is one in which:

- The total organization, the significant subparts, and individuals manage their work against goals and plans for achievement of these goals.
- The form of the organization changes continually depending on the nature of the task rather than that the task must fit into existing structure.
- Decisions are made by and near the source of information regardless of whether these source are located in the organization chart.
- The reward system is such that managers and supervisors are rewarded (and punished) comparably for :

  Short-term profit or production performance,

  Growth and development of their subordinates,

  Creating a viable organization.

- Communication laterally and vertically is relatively undistorted. People are generally open and confronting. They share all the relevant facts including feelings.
- There is minimum amount of inappropriate win/loss activities between individuals and groups. Constant effort exists at all levels to treat conflict-situation as problems subject to problem-solving methods.
- There is high conflict (clash or ideas) about tasks and projects, and relatively little energy spent in clashing over interpersonal difficulties because they have been generally worked through.
- The organization and its parts see themselves as interacting each other and with a larger environment. The organization is an open system.
- There is a management strategy to support a shared value :

There is an ongoing attempt to help each person (or unit) in the organization maintain his (or its) integrity and uniqueness in an independent environment

The organization and its members operate in an "action research" way. General practice is to build in feedback mechanism so that individuals and groups can learn from their own experience.

Moreover the OD process is not a one-time exercise since the only constant thing in life is change. It is rather a systematic, planned effort on an ongoing basis to build up the internal capability of the organization on a continuous basis to confront the forces of internal and the external pressure created by the environment.

5. OD achieves its goals through planned interventions using behavioral-science knowledge.

A strategy is developed to intervene or move into the existing organization, and help the organization examine its present ways of work, norms, and values, and look at alternative ways of working, or relating, or rewarding. The subsequent units will illustrate different types of interventions and their effects.

The OD interventions draw on the knowledge and technology of the behavioral science. The focus is on the following behavioral processes such as individual motivation power, communications, perception, cultural norms, problem-solving, goal-setting, interpersonal relationship, intergroup relationship, and conflict management.

In order to understand the concept of OD, it becomes necessary to examine the difference between OD change efforts and other efforts, which are directed towards changing human behavior or work methods.

1.1.1 OD and Management Development

The difference between these two types of efforts is primarily in who is the customer.

Management development	Organizational Development
It is appropriately called "Manager Development" and focuses on individual	Though it includes management development efforts but focuses on improving the system

manager.

that make up the total organization

Its purposes usually are to upgrade the skills, abilities, and capacities of managers to handle broader assignments; and realize the organization's needs for succession, promotion and so forth.

It is primarily concerned with training of groups, not necessarily in groups; with working on inter-group relationships; with examination of communication systems or the organization structure and roles; and with improving the goal-setting process.

It includes the activities like career planing, job rotation, management education in and out of the organization, improvement, or assessment of the individual manager.

An example of an organization development program would be periodic assessment of how a team or family group (boss and subordinates) is operating. They set goals on regular basis for improvement of their internal working relationship, of the way they solve problems, and of the quality of their communication, as well as established priorities on their future tasks.

1.1.2 OD and Training effort

Training

Management have from time to time seen a need for some kind of company wide, overall training effort to upgrade the managerial effectiveness of all managers or the problem solving of all work units. But they are not specifically related to the organization's mission. They are not action oriented. They are not larger effort to initiate company wide changes like OD.

Organizational Development

Training efforts are useful in furnishing education but they do not necessarily produce company wide organizational change or stimulate action by providing a link between training activity and the action planning which follows it. The skills and ability learned in the training phase are applied by the work team and by the organizational management team for initiating OD effort.

1.1.3 *Organizational development and Operation research*

SIMILARITIES

1. Both are relatively recent developments.
2. Both are products of world war II
3. Both OR and OD are problem centered, as contrasted to the basic disciplines which emphasize concept or method: in other words, they are applied rather then focusing on the content itself.
4. Both OR and OD emphasize improvement and optimization of performance to that extent they are normative in their approach problem.
5. Both OR and OD relies heavily on application of empirical science as their main method of influence.
6. Both OR and OD relies on relationship with clients based on confidence and valid communication.
7. Both OR and OD emphasize a systems approach to problems, meaning essentially an awareness of the interdependence within the internal parts of the system.
8. OR and OD appear to be most effective when working with systems which are complex, rapidly changing, and probably science based.

DIFFERENCES:

Operation Research	Organization Development
OR practitioner tend to select economic or engineering variables like inventory, allocation, queuing, sequencing, routing, replacement, competition. These variables are quantitative and measurable. They are linked directly to the profit and efficiency of the organization	OD practitioner tends to be more concerned with human variables and values e.g., a similar inventory of problems in the organizational development approach will include identification of appropriate mission and values, human collaboration and conflict, control and leadership, coping with and resisting change, utilization of human resources, communication between hierarchical ranks, growth patterns, management and career development.

1.1.4 Kinds of organization conditions that call for OD efforts.

An essential condition of any effective change program is that somebody in a strategic position really feels the need for change.

The following is the list of the kinds of conditions or felt needs that have provided the impetus for organization development programs.

1. The need to change a managerial strategy.

It is a fact that many managers of small and large enterprises are to day re-examining the basic strategies by which the organization is operating. They are attempting to modify their total managerial strategy in building the communications patterns, location of decision-making, the reward systems, etc.

2. The need to make the organization climate more consistent with more individual needs and the changing needs of the environment.

If a manager, or strategically placed staff person, or enough people in the middle of the hierarchy really feel this need, the organization is ready for some planed change effort.

3. The need to change cultural norms

More and more managers are learning that they are really managing a culture with its own values, ground rules, norms and power structure. If there is a felt need that the culture needs to be changed, in order to be more consistent with competitive demands or the environment, this is another condition where an organization development program is appropriate.

For example, a large and successful food company, owned by two families became concerned about the state of the enterprise in this changing time. They strongly felt the needs for changing from a family owned family controlled organization to a family controlled professionally managed organization. The problem to be dealt with,

then, was a total change in the culture of the organization, designed to arrive at different norms, different ground rules and so forth.

4. The need to structure and roles

An awareness by key management that we're just not properly organized, that the work of (let's say) the research department and the work of the development department should be separated or should be integrated; that the management service function and the personnel function should report to the same vice-president, etc. The felt need here and the problems anticipated in effecting a major structural or role change might lead to organizational development efforts.

5. The need to improve inter-group collaboration.

One of the major expenditure of dysfunctional energy in organizations is the large amount of inappropriate competition between groups. When this becomes noticeable and top managers are hurting; they are ready to initiate OD efforts for increasing inter-group collaboration.

6. The need to open up the communication system.

When managers become aware of significant gaps in communication up or down or of lack of adequate information for making decisions then they feel a need for OD to improve the situation.

7. The need for better planning.

One of the major corollaries of the increasing complexity of business and the changing demands of the environments that the planning function, which used to be highly centralized in the president's or national director's office, now must be done by number of people through out the organization. An awareness of these conditions by management may well lead to OD effort to improve planning and goals settings.

8. The need for coping with mergers.

In every merger situation, there is a surviving partner and a merged partner. The human problem in the process of merger is tremendous and some times very destructive to organization health. Awareness of this may well cause a management to induce OD program for coping with the problem.

9. Need for change in the motivation of work force.

In some large companies there are planned efforts to change the way work is organized and the way jobs are defined. This is done because there is a need for changing the psychological ownership condition within the work force. Herzberg's work on job enlargement and job enrichment is applied to change the motivation of the work force.

10. Need for adaptation to a new environment

If a company moves into a new type of product due to merger or an acquisition, t may have to develop an entirely different marketing strategy.

In most advertising agency the account executives were the key people with whom the client does all business. Now due to the advent of television and other media, the client wants to talk directly to the television specialist or the media specialist and has less need to talk with the account executives. This has produced a real trauma in the agency business as the influence pattern has changed. This calls for organization wide efforts to examine the changed environment, assess its consequences, and coping with the new condition.

Questions:

1. Organization development is one of the change strategies for improving organizational effectiveness: Explain

2. List down a few characteristics of an effective organization.

LESSON-2

NATURE AND SCOPE OF OD:

2.1 AN OVERVIEW

OD can be characterized in several different ways—as a process, as a form of applied behavioral science, as normative change, as incorporating a system approach to organization, as based on action research model, as an experience based learning mode, as emphasizing goals and objectives, and so on. Each of these facets adds something new to the picture of the OD process. These are elaborated in the following:

2.1.1 OD is a normative-re -educative strategy of changing

This means that OD aim to change through a change in attitudes, norms and values in the individuals' personal worth and beliefs.

As a re-educative strategy, it focuses on the individuals' worth by way of impressing upon them the worthlessness of the zero sum game and in turn inculcating the value of participative decision making as a means to strengthen the individuals' worth in an organized set-up

Organization Development rests on a particular strategy of changing that has implications for practitioners and organization members alike. Chin and Ben describe three types of strategies for changing.

1. First there are the empirical-rational strategies, based on the assumptions that men are rational, will follow their rational self-interest, and will change if and when they come to realize the change in advantageous to them.

2. The second group of strategies is the normative-re-educative strategies, based on the assumptions that norms form the basis for behavior and change comes through a re-education process in which old norms are discarded and supplanted by new ones.

3. The third set of strategies are the power-coercive strategies, based on the assumption that change is compliance of those with less power to the desires of those with more power.

Evaluated against these three change approaches, OD is clearly seen to fall within the normative-re-educative category

An illustration may clarify these three strategies of changing. Say the polio vaccine has just been invented, tested, and cleared for public use, and you are in charge of disseminating it to the public.

Your procedure would depend upon which strategy of change you believed in. If you espoused the empirical-rational theory of changing, then you would assume that all rational, self-interested people would use the vaccine if only they had information and knowledge about its availability and its efficacy.

Your program, therefore, would be to disseminate the knowledge and information. As a consequence, everyone would take the vaccine, since it would be in his best interests.

On the other hand, if you held a normative-re-educative belief about changing, you would do additional things. While you would not disbelieve or that some of his behavior was rooted in socio-cultural norms, values, and disregard man's intelligence, rationality, and self-interest, you would also believe beliefs that must be changed in order for him to accept and use the vaccine.

Some of these beliefs might be that " all new drugs are dangerous until they have been on the market for ten years." "My neighbor, Mrs. Jones, isn't going to use the vaccines, and neither am I since she's always right about these things." "Well, no one in my family has ever had polio, so I'm not afraid of getting it and don't need to be vaccinated."

Holding to the second strategy of changing, you would assume that norms and values had to be changed, in addition to making the information available to the public. You would mount both an education campaign about the new drug and a re-education campaign to change some norms and values.

If you held to a power-coercive strategy of changing, your task would be straightforward: you would pass a law stating all persons must get vaccinated, and you would ensure and enforce compliance to the law. If you had the power to pass the law and power to enforce the law, the people would take the vaccine.

The point here is that there are different strategies for effecting change, and OD is based primarily on a normative-re-educative one and secondarily on a rational-empirical one.

2.1.2 OD views organizations from a systems approach

A systems approach views and emphasizes organizational phenomena and dynamics in their inter-relatedness, their connected-ness, their interdependence, and their interaction. The following points describe the concept of system approach:

1. **System approach does not view the issues, events, forces, and incidents as isolated phenomena in an organization. On the contrary they occur in relation to other events, issues, phenomena.**

2. **Systems approach encourages analysis of events in terms of multiple causation rather than single causation. The real world is complex; events in it are complex. The reality is best described when we associate multiple causes to events.**

3. **The field of forces at the time of the event are the relevant forces for analysis. This dictum is taken from Kurt Lewin's theory in social psychology. It forces the practitioner to move away from an analysis of historical events. The practitioner rather examines contemporary events and forces while implementing OD.**

4. **Fourth, one cannot change one part of a system without influencing other parts in some ways. The systems viewpoint makes the practitioner anticipate multiple effects rather than single effect. These effects show up in other parts of the system and also in the part of the system with which he is working.**

5. **The fifth and final point is that if one wants to change a system, he changes the system, not just its component parts. Organization development is the development of a system, not only of the parts of a system.**

Organization development means development of the organization.

2.1.3 OD is a data based approach to planned change

A key value inculcated in organization members is a belief in the validity, desirability, and usefulness of data about the system itself, specifically, data about the system's culture and processes.

The data based nature of organization development has some features that distinguish it from other data based change activities. Some of the characteristics and their implications are the following.

1. First, strong emphasis is placed on the value of data in the OD process, perhaps stronger than that in most change programs. As a consequence of this, organization members learn how to collect, work with, and utilize data for problem solving in the organization.

2. Second, in OD programs, specific kinds of data are preferred over others. For example, data about the organization's human and social processes would be used more than technical data, financial data, market information, and the like.

3. Third, in OD programs, the data usually "belong to" and are used by the people who generated them. This means that an attitude survey, for example, is not conducted just so that top management can study the results; rather it is conducted so that the contributors at all levels may have an accurate picture of the situations they confront and may then plan action programs.

4. Fourth, the contradictory data or the discrepancy data are viewed as "nuggets" rather than as nuisances in OD programs. For example, if one hierarchical level views it as unjust and unfair (and if neither of these levels knew the other felt that way), then the finding of this nugget can point toward action plans to decide what to do about the discrepancy.

5. Fifth, in OD programs, feelings toward "facts" tend to shift from viewing facts as either "good" or "bad" to looking at the consequences or functionality/dysfunctionality of the facts. For example, a particular leadership style, highly authoritarian, may be a fact. The important thing about this fact is not to label it as good or bad, but to understand the

consequences of manifesting this leadership style, and to understand the conditions under which it is functional for certain results and dysfunctional for other results. This is, then, a shift from evaluating data to describing data. When data are described, people tend to become less defensive about them, compared to when they are evaluated.

6. A sixth point is that in OD programs data tend to be used as aids to problem solving rather than as "clubs" to enforce certain behaviors. One of the goals of organization development is to build the climate in the system to the point where data are used not to punish people but to aid them in problem solving.

7. Seventh, the strong data base used in organization development; is similar to that of the scientific method, in the sense that decisions are made increasingly on the basis of empirical facts rather than power, position, tradition, persuasion, and so forth.

As a final note, the data used in the OD process stem from the stated needs and problems of the system members, that is, they are data to provide answers to central needs of the organization and its members.

2.1.4 OD is experience-based

People learn how to do things by doing them. This is the underlying belief of most OD practitioners. The experience-based nature of the OD process derives from the above belief. People learn about organizational dynamics by experiencing them and reflecting on the experience. People learn to make decisions by making some and then evaluating them. When people are engaged in real experiences, they are engaged with their minds, emotions, and strivings-their whole beings. Experience-based learning calls not just for exposure to an experience but also for reflection about the experience.

Organizational members experience something through an activity, then reflect on that experience to derive learning and generalizations about the phenomenon. Many OD interventions call for scheduling reflection time after an activity, during which the participants examine such issues as the following:

1. What were the causal relationships we found in this activity?

2. What were the things we appeared to do right in this task?
3. What things hindered our reaching our goals?
4. What can we learn from this experience that may apply to future experiences and tasks?

This constant questioning and reflecting is learning. This habit helps him continually examine his own experiences in order that he may learn and change and grow.

Experiential learning methods appear to be particularly efficacious for learning about human and social relations, that is, increasing interpersonal skills, learning about small group dynamics, and so forth.

2.1.5 OD emphasizes goal setting and planning

The OD process aims at improving, in various ways, the functioning of the organization.

Healthy and effective organizations tend to have goal setting at all levels.

Both organizations and individuals need to manage their affairs against goals-explicit, measurable, obtainable goals.

The goal setting and planning were used to be the sole function of the top echelons of the organization, while the functions of the lower echelons were to carry out the plans and help reach the objectives.

It is now believed that wider participation in goal setting leads to a greater utilization of an organization's resources, human and technical, and results in significantly better plans.

In addition, the plans prepared by many people at all levels of the organization can probably bring about more changes and receive in-built support for carrying them out.

But individuals and groups at lower organizational levels often did not have the skills necessary to do good plan making, since they had never been called upon to do so.

OD interventions directed toward learning and practicing these skills attempt to meet this need of the organization and its members.

The goal setting and planning interventions concentrate on the following major skills and abilities:

1. Learning to set goals and objectives.

2. Learning to translate goals into actions and procedures for achieving them.

3. Learning how to plan and make decisions to facilitate goal attainment. (In a sense, this third point is a restatement of the first two points.)

Let us understand what the plan means.

Plans involve selecting enterprise objectives and departmental programs and determining ways of reaching them. Plans thus provide a rational approach to pre-selected objectives.

Planning means deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and who is to do it.

Planning is an intellectual process, the conscious determination of courses of action, the basing of decisions on purpose, facts and budgets.

The skills of goal setting and planning at all levels are needed in organizations. Hence OD process puts emphasis on these skills. Now the importance of "managing against objectives" and its positive consequences for better effectiveness are recognized as important in their own right in OD implementation process.

2.1.6 OD activities focus on intact work teams

A fundamental belief in organization development is that the organization does its work through work teams of a variety of kinds and natures.

A second fundamental belief is that changing the culture, processes, relationships, and ways of performing tasks within these teams is a way to achieve permanent and lasting improvement in the organization.

The potency and ability to make things happen by intact work teams working together to improve their team effectiveness is frankly astounding compared with working with a group of individuals who are organizationally irrelevant to each other.

This is true for a number of reasons, some of which are the following:

1. First, much individual behavior is rooted in the sociocultural norms and values of the work team. If the team, as a team, changes those norms and values, the effect on individual behavior is immediate and lasting.

2. Second, the intact work team possesses the "reality configuration of relationships" that the individuals must in fact accommodate to and learn to utilize and cope with. This is to say that many of the "significant others" of the individual's work world are in the work group. Effective (or ineffective) relationships with these people can have far-reaching effects on the individual's performance and behavior.

3. Third, the "reality configuration of organizational dynamics" that the individuals must accommodate to are found in the work team. By this we mean that the work team is the source of most of the individual's knowledge about organizational processes such as communications, decision making, and goal setting. These are the processes that most influence the individual's behavior.

4. Fourth, it is commonly believed that his work group, consisting of both peers and superior satisfies many of the individual's needs for social interaction, status, recognition, and respect.

In our experience, most OD programs rely heavily on interventions designed to improve work team relationships, processes, and task performance. While working with intact groups to improve their functioning can be a powerful instrumentality for organizational change, it can also do considerable damage to the team if the activities are poorly conceived or poorly executed.

Because the work team is so important to the individual, doing anything to destroy the relationship or to impair the processes or the ability for task performance can cause a profound and disastrous effect.

This is another reason why we believe that an external change agent should be involved in the early stages of an OD program.

2.1.7 OD is an ongoing interactive process

One understands about the nature of OD by viewing it as an ongoing process. A process is an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving over time toward some goal or end. In the OD process the identifiable flow of interrelated events consists of interventions in the client system and responses to the interventions.

In practice, an initial strategy will be formulated and this will be modified and changed as events and experience suggests emergent directions and emergent problems. The ongoing process nature of OD implies that it is not to be regarded as one shot solution to organization problems, but more as a growing toward greater effectiveness. Managing and directing the change of an organization's culture does not happen overnight; a more accurate time estimate is several years.

The interactive nature of the OD process suggest the necessity for effective feedback loops for monitoring the reactions to interventions, the readiness of subsystem for change, and emergent problems and new directions.

2.1.8 OD is a form of applied behavioral science.

An OD program applies the scientific and practice principles from several behavioral sciences: social psychology, social anthropology, sociology, psychiatry, economics and political science. The OD practitioner translates what is known about people and organization as found in behavioral science knowledge into applicable programs of actions.

OD is both a result and form of applied behavioral science. This applied behavioral science receives its inputs from pure or basic science and applied science. The contribution of the pure science is available in form of behavioral science theory

and behavioral science research. The inputs of practice research and practice theory form the contributions of the applied science.

Let us now look at Operational Goals of OD to enhance our understanding of the **nature and the scope** of Organization Development.

2.1.9 Operational goals of OD:

OD efforts usually have some of the following operational goals:

1. To develop a self - renewing, viable organization, that can organize in a variety of ways depending on the nature of the task. There is a movement towards concept of " from follows function".
2. To optimize the effectiveness of both the stable (the basic organization chart) and the temporary system (the many projects, committees, etc, through which much of the organization work is accomplished). By built-in continues improvement mechanism
3. To move towards high collaboration and low competition between interdependent units.
4. To create conditions where conflict is brought out and managed.
5. To reach the point where decisions are made on the basis of information source rather then organizational role.

QUESTIONS:

1. The nature and scope of OD make it different from other change strategies---- Explain.

LESSON-3

HISTORY OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT:

3.1 OD activities have originated out of experiments conducted in the applications of value and inside of laboratory training applied to the total organization. Douglas Mcgregor was the first behavioral scientist, who while working with Union Carbide, USA, systematically implemented an OD program. Other noted behavioral scientist associated with origin of OD are Herbert Shepard, Robert Blake, and Jane Mouton. They carried out laboratory program in oil refineries of ESSO in collaboration with the companies industrial relation department. In 1957 this program emerged as result of the research done by industrial relation department of ESSO, which started viewing itself as an internal consulting group on OD. In fact some think that OD emerged as a result of experiment in search of better means for organizational improvement as compared with the then existing laboratory methods of training. Laboratory Training method is considered to be the first stem in the history of OD. The second major stem in the history of OD revolves around the experience at the Research Center for Group Dynamics founded by Kurt Lewin in 1945 at MIT. This second major stem is Survey Research and Feedback, which refers to the use of attitude survey and data feedback in workshop session.

In the Indian context, OD emerges during the 60's. There are quite a few noted thinkers on OD who worked as external changed agents in the Indian organization. These names are Prof. Udai Parekh, Prof T.V. Rao, Dharni Sinah, Dr. Abert Ahmed, Nitish De, Gopal Valachea, Gaurango Chatopadhyay, and Somnath Chatopadhyay.

In HMT where a lot of work was carried out on OD, The name of M.S.S. Wardhan who worked as General Manager (OD), as an internal changed agent in HMT is closely associated with the development of early phases of OD in Indian company.

In Larsen & Tour, K.K.Anand carried out commendable work on OD. The first OD experiment dates back to 1968-69 in the Kamani Group of Companies, there after in TISCO in 1972, HMT 1974 and Orient paper mill, Bokaro steel plant, Indian Aluminum company, Hindustan steel and the State Bank of New India in 1978. Institution like AASCI, IIMs, IASABS, ISISD conducts program for OD professionals in India. OD process orientation is the focus in such areas. We will take up few cases without mentioning name location of the company.

LESSON-4

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTION AND VALUES:

4.1 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE AS INDIVIDUALS

Organization development efforts make two basic assumptions about people.

- Personal growth.
- Constructive contributions.

The first assumption about people is that most individuals have drives toward personal growth and development if provided an environment that is both supportive and challenging. Most people want to become more of what they are capable of becoming.

The second assumption, related to the first, is that most people desire to make, and are capable of making, a higher level of contribution to the attainment of organizational goals beyond what most organizational environments will permit. A tremendous amount of constructive energy can be tapped if organizations recognize this; for example, by asking for and acting on suggestions.

Frequently, however, organizational members learn that what they perceive to be constructive efforts may be self-defeating in the sense that these efforts are not rewarded and may be penalized.

For example, attempts at lateral communications between two departments to solve some problem may be throttled through adherence to some principle about the chain of command

These assumptions differ markedly from more traditional views about people. Tannenbaum and Davis state:

- The traditional view of individuals is that they can be defined in terms of given interests, knowledge, skills and personality characteristics:
- They can gain new knowledge, acquire additional skills, and even at times change their interests, but it is rare that people really change. This view, when buttressed by

related organizational attitudes and modes, insures a relative fixity of individuals, with crippling effects.

Thus, one can view people as fixed entities, or one can view them as potentially "in process" or in "the process of becoming. " The latter assumption underlies many OD interventions—many of which are aimed at unleashing drives toward personal growth and contribution or are aimed at modifying organizational constraints that are having a dampening or throttling effect.

4.2 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE IN GROUPS AND ABOUT LEADERSHIP

The importance of the work team has long been recognized, and the significance of the "informal" part of group life has received considerable attention since the Hawthorne studies of the late 1920s and early 1930s.

Extensive knowledge about group dynamics and collaborative ways of managing group culture, however, has had a more recent origin. In particular, the laboratory-training movement of post-World War II has contributed to this knowledge. The following are some assumptions growing mainly out of this recent history.

The first assumption is that one of the most psychologically relevant reference groups for most people is the work group, including peers and the superior. What goes on in the work team, at the informal level in particular has great significance for feelings of satisfaction and competence.

A related assumption is that most people wish to be accepted and to interact co-operatively with at least one small reference group, and usually with more than one group, that is, the work group, the family, and so forth.

Furthermore, most people are capable of greatly increasing their effectiveness and of helping their reference groups solve problems. From our experience, most work groups have only begun to utilize their resources for effective collaboration. Stating the case negatively, a great deal of energy is expended unnecessarily around such issues as inclusion exclusion if there is no collaborative effort to examine and manage such dimensions.

A third assumption is that for a group to optimize its effectiveness, the formal leader cannot perform all the leadership and maintenance functions in all circumstances at all times, hence group members must assist each other with effective leadership and a member behavior.

For many managers and groups, these are difficult patterns from which to extricate them and frequently require a change in perspective on the part of both the manager and the total group.

For example, if the manager begins to realize that improvements in unit functioning really require fuller participation on the part of all subordinates, the norms of the group may need to be examined to legitimate such participation.

To illustrate-the current norms may call for deference to one or two more vocal members, or the norm may be to avoid issues facing the total unit in order to concentrate efforts on solving narrower problems where there is a more immediate pay-off.

A fourth assumption is that suppressed feelings adversely affect problem solving, personal growth, and job satisfaction. The culture in most groups and organizations tend to suppress the expression of feelings that people have.

About each other and their behaviors both positive and negative about what they are doing and about where they and their organizations are heading. An emphasis on "rationality" seems to assume that emotions are best handled by repressing them-that feelings are taboo.

This does not mean that the expression of feelings will be helpful or that, overnight, individuals and groups will have the skill to manage collaboratively the organizational underworld of sentiments.

The development of such skill requires much learning and much of it together in the group that wishes to improve its performance. Viewing feelings as data, however, tends to open up many avenues for improved goal setting, leadership communications, conflict resolution, problem solving, between-group collaboration, and morale. These data also act as aid to develop group skills in dealing with feelings,

A fifth assumption is that the level of interpersonal trust, support, and cooperation is much lower in most groups and organizations than is either necessary or desirable, in spite of desires toward these same qualities. Typically a number of forces contribute to such situations, including an absence of viewing feelings as important data. Lack of group problem-solving skills or reward and performance review systems that reinforce dysfunctional competition.

A sixth assumption about people in-groups is that the solutions to most attitudinal and motivational problems in organizations are transactional. That is such problems have the greatest chance of constructive solution if all parties in the system or subsystem alter their mutual relationships.

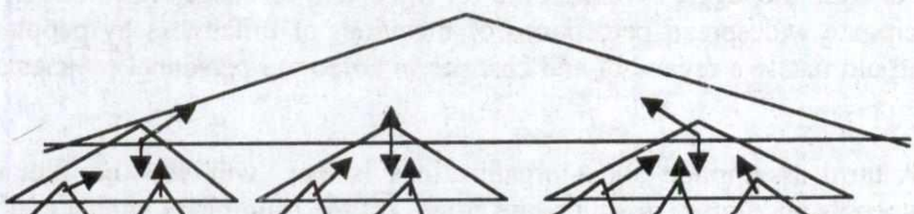
The objective becomes not how can A get B to perform, but how can A and B work together to modify their interactions toward becoming more mutually effective Thus, the unit for attention becomes a system larger than one individual. This is not to deny the importance of the individual but to stress the significance of the intersectional nature of human relationships in the organizational setting.

4.3 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE IN ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS

A number of ideas or assumptions about people in systems more complexes than groups also underlie organization development efforts.

In recent years it has frequently been observed that organizations tend to be characterized by overlapping work groups, with the superior and others serving.

In Likert's terminology, it is called "linking pins."(See adjoining Figure.).



Thus a manager is a member of at least two work teams as the superior in one and as a subordinate and peer in another.

This leads to an assumption relevant to OD:

The interrelated dynamics of both of these work teams and the manager's behavior in both work teams are highly significant factors in organizational life. To give only one example, the behavior of Manager Jones in meeting his superior and his peers will tend to influence and be congruent with the way he runs meetings with his subordinates.

This notion of overlapping work groups is further complicated by the fact that it is common practice in many organizations to involve people in committees or task forces that draw members from several work groups. These can be viewed as temporary work teams which have a life of their own and which exist concurrently and in an overlapping way with the more "permanent" work teams.

The culture of these temporary work teams carries over into the culture of the more permanent work teams, and vice versa.

A second major assumption about people in organizations is that policy and practices of the broader organization affect the small work group and vice versa. Another way of saying this is that what happens to one subsystem will affect and be influenced by other parts of the total system.

It is obvious that personnel policies pertaining to hiring and wages, for example, can have a high impact on group attitudes.

For example, aggressive pressure for rights and privileges form one department can precipitate widespread perceptions of inequities or unfairness by people in other units, and ultimately a review of and changes in corporate personnel policies are likely to occur.

A third assumption about organizations is that "win-lose" conflict strategies between people and group, in which one comes off the triumphant winner and the other the defensive loser. These may be realistic and appropriate in some situations, but are not optimal in the long run to the solution of most organizational problems. Many problems can better be approached in terms of "how can we all win"?

Finally, improved performance stemming from organization development efforts needs to be sustained by appropriate changes in the appraisal, compensation, training, staffing, task, and communications subsystems, that is, in the total human resources system.

4.4 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT VALUES OF THE CLIENT ORGANIZAION

Another basic assumption underlying organization development activities is that members of the system must, in general, place value in collaborative effort and in the constructive end products of the system, either current or potential. Some values must be held in common between protagonists if conflict-reducing and problem-solving techniques are to be made useful. Otherwise one of both tend to resort to raw power. To state the case negatively and to focus on some recent between -organization phenomena, organization development strategies will be unsuccessful to the degree that system members place value in anarchy, hate, violence, or destruction. This is not to say that organization development has no role in the management of dissent-it can have, but power becomes an overriding factor when values become highly polarized.

A further, land related, basic assumption underlying organization development activities is that value is placed on the welfare of all system members, particularly by the people having the most power over others.

This assumption is the most basic and perhaps the most obvious one of all, but it needs to be made explicit. Both assumption about the values of the client system need to be tested early in any organization development efforts, and any lessor incongruities worked out between consultant and client, or the relationship should be terminated.

4.5 VALUE AND BELIEF SYSTEMS OF BEHAVOURAL SCIENTIST CHANGE AGENTS

While scientific inquiry, ideally, is value free, the application of science is not value free. Applied behavioral scientist-organization development consultants tend to subscribe to a comparable set of values, although we should avoid the trap of assuming that they constitute a completely homogeneous group. From experience it is established that they do not.

One value, to which many behavioral scientist-change agents-these authors at least-tend to place a value on optimism. It is a kind of optimism that says people can do a better job of goal setting and facing up to and solving problems, not an optimism that says the number of problems is diminishing.

A second value that tends to be held by change agents is that work and life can become richer and more meaningful, and organized effort more effective and enjoyable, if feelings and sentiments are permitted to be a more legitimate part of the culture of organizations. This value, of course, like any other, can be held in excess with a lack of attention to organizational realities. For example, the OD consultant may be overly zealous in promoting openness in conflict situation. A reality may be that the internal reward system rewards winners of internal struggles regardless of the human rescues wasted in the process.

A third value held by; change agents is a commitment to an action role along with a commitment to research, in an effort to improve the effectiveness of organizations. Although many change agents are perhaps overly action oriented in terms of the utilization of their time, as a group they are paying more and more attention to research and to the examination of ideas.

This importance placed on research land inquiry raises the question whether the assumptions stated in this chapter is values, theory, or "facts." In our judgment, a substantial body of experience and knowledge, including research on leadership, suggests that there is considerable evidence for these assumptions. To conclude that these assumptions were facts, laws, or principles, however, would be to contradict the value placed by behavioral scientists on continuous research and inquiry. Thus, the assumptions we have stated should be considered theoretical statements based on provisional data. Finally, a value frequently attributed to applied behavioral scientists is a presumed value placed only democratization of organizations or on "power equalization." While most would not, for example, subscribe to the wisdom of all organizational members electing the president of a corporation. They would, however subscribe to this procedure as it related to the central government of the broader society.

This is where we are on the issue. As organization development consultants, we do not see our role as power equalizers. We do, however, believe that most organizations can profitably learn to be more responsive to organizational members and that all parties concerned can learn to be more skillful in his responsiveness. A major route to increased organization members can make larger contributions to organizational goals. But this may mean that managers will need to augment the authority if their positions with additional skills in being more responsive to the human-social subsystem.

Parenthetically, it should be added that it is important for each behavioral scientist-change agent to make his values and beliefs visible to both himself land his client. Neither parties; can learn to trust the other adequately without such exposure-hidden agenda handicap both trust building and mutual learning. Perhaps more pragmatically, organization development change efforts tend to fail if strategies or techniques are applied unilaterally and without open collaboration.

QUESTIONS:

1.Write short note on the history of the emergence of OD in Indian Context.

2.OD activities rest on a number of assumptions about people, about the transactional nature of organizational improvement, and about values----Elaborate.

LESSON-5

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

5.1 OPERATIONAL COMPONENTS:

The nature of OD could be presented in several ways. As shown in the adjoining figure-5.1, the outer ellipse describes the foundation characteristics and the inner eclipse describes the basic components (or operations) found in any OD program.

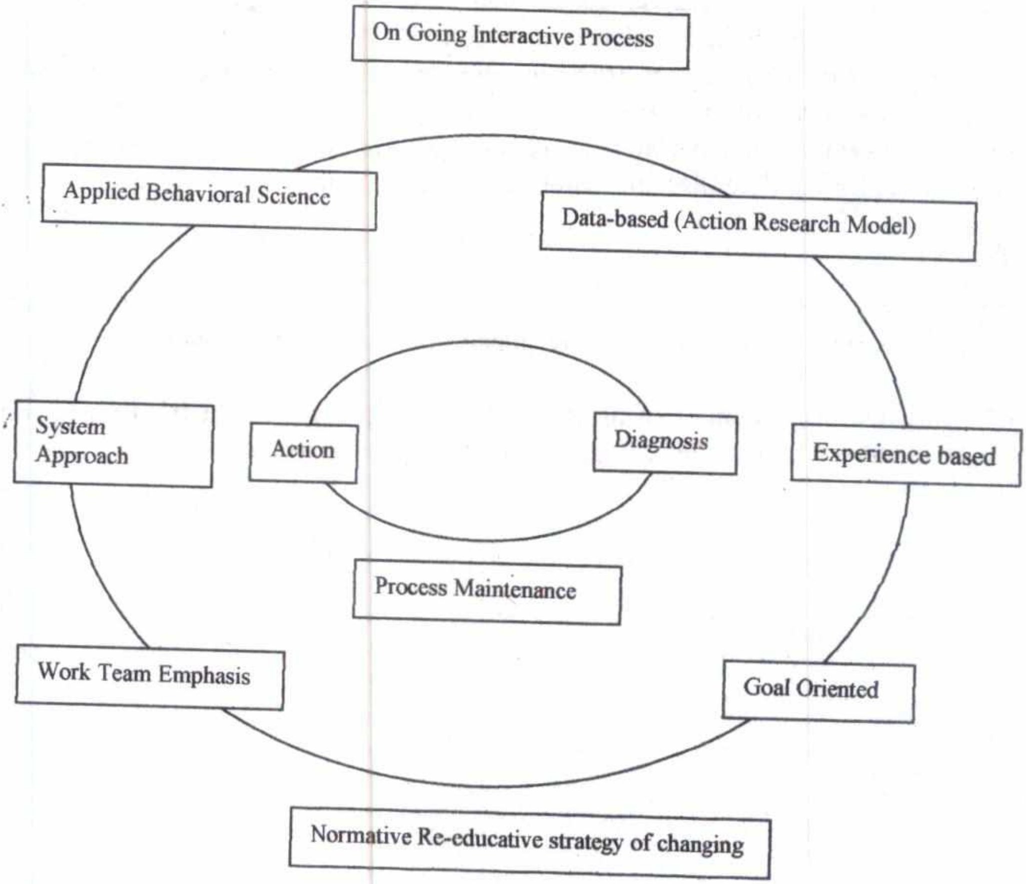


Fig-5.1

All OD process will contain three elements:

1. Diagnosis,
2. Action,
3. Process-maintenance.

The major characteristics and theoretical underpinnings are considered the foundation on which the process is built. Some facets of these characteristics are already treated in detail in the last lesson. These characteristic are that organizational development is on going interaction process, data based, experience based, goal oriented, both a form of and a result of applied behavioral science, uses a system approach, has a work team emphasis, constitutes a normative – re-educative strategy.

5.1.1 Basic components of an OD program

Implementation of an OD program requires the attention to three operations that we call basic components or the elements of the OD program in operation:

- The diagnostic component represents a continuous collection of system data, focuses on total system with subsystem and the system processes.
- The action (or intervention) component consist of all the activities of the consultant and system member designed to improve the organization functioning.
- The process maintenance components encompass activities oriented toward the maintenance and management of the OD process itself.

The first two elements relate to OD process Vis a Vis the organization; the third element relates to the OD process Vis a Vis itself.

In fact all three components represent actions or interventions in the system and thus fall in the action category. Diagnostic activity, for example, a powerful action impacts on an organization. Three components here are artificially separated for analytical purposes.

5.2 Diagnostic components: Diagnosing the system and its processes

OD is at heart an action program based on valid information about the status quo, current problems and opportunities and effects of actions as they relate to goal achievement. An OD program thus starts with diagnosis and continuously employs data collecting and data analyzing through out. The requirement for diagnostic activities stem from two needs:

1. To know the state of things
2. To know the effects of action.

The following tables show how one would proceed to diagnose a system and its subsystems (the whole and its sub-units). For each of the major targets or subsystems in an organization, the typical information desired and common methods of obtaining the information are given. The OD practitioner may be interested in all these target groups or only in one or two of them; he may work with one subsystem during one phase of the program and other subsystem during subsequent phases. Frequently the improvement strategy calls for concentrating on different organizational targets in a planned manner.

For example, the program may start at an important sub system, move to another sub system and then extend to the total organization; or the initial focus would be on the total organization and then move to select subsystems.

Let us now see one by one how we can proceed to diagnosis a system and its subsystem.

5.2.1 DIAGNOSING THE SYSTEM

Let us first select the total organization as the target or the diagnostic focus

i. **The target:** The total organization

Explanation and identifying examples	The total system is assessed and analyzed including extra systems, if required, such as groups or forces such as customer, supplier and governmental regulations e.g. a manufacturer, a hospital, a school, a departmental store chain, and a church.
Typical information sought	What are the norms of the organization? What is the organization culture? What are the attitudes, opinions, and feeling of system member towards salary, organizational goals, supervision and top management? What is the organizational climate – open vs. close, authoritarian vs. democratic, repressive vs. developmental, trusting vs. suspicious, co-operative vs. competitive? How well do key organizational processes such as decision making and goal setting function? What kind and how effective are the organization's sensing mechanism to monitor internal and external demands? Are organizational goals excepted and understood?
Common methods of diagnosis	Questionnaire survey is more popular with large organization. Interviews both group and individuals are useful in getting detail information, specially based on effective sampling techniques. A panel of representative members who are surveyed or interviewed periodically is useful to chart changes over time. Examination of organizational rules and regulations, policies, status, etc. yields insight into the organization's culture. Diagnostic meetings held at various levels within the organization yield a great amount of information in a short time.

ii. **Target:** large sub systems that are complex and heterogeneous in nature

Explanation and identifying examples	The target group stems from making different slices of the organization, such as by hierarchical level, function, and geographical location. First they are viewed as subsystem by themselves and second they are heterogeneous in makeup e.g. the middle management group, consisting of managers from diverse functional groups; the personal department members of an organization that has widely dispersed operation with a personal group at each location, every one in one plant in a company that has 10 plants, a division made of several functional groups.
Typical information sought	In addition to the typical information sought in the context of the total organization " as a target"; plus: how do this subsystem view the whole and vice versa? How do the members of the subsystem get along together? What is the unique demand in the subsystem? Is organization's structure and processes related to the unique demands? Are there high or low sub units within the sub system in terms of performance? why? What are the major problems confronting these subsystem and its sub units? Are the subsystem's goals compatible with organizational goals? Does the heterogeneity of role demand and functional identity get in the way of effective system performance
Common methods of diagnosis	If the subsystem is large or widely dispersed questionnaire and survey techniques are recommended.

iii. **Target:** Small subsystems that are simple and relatively homogenous

Explanation and identifying examples	These are typically formal works groups or teams that have frequent face to face interaction. They may be permanent group, temporary task forces or newly constituted groups (e.g., group charged with start up of the new operation, or the group formed by an acquisition or merger). E.g. are the top management team, any manager and his key subordinates, committees of a permanent or temporary nature, task force teams, the work force in an office, the teachers in a single school.
Typical information sought	The question on culture, climate, attitudes, and feelings are relevant here, plus: what are the major problems of the team? How can team effectiveness are improved? What do people do that gets in the way of others? Are member/leader relations those that are desired? Do individuals know how their jobs relate to group and organizational goals? Are the group's working processes, (i.e. is the way they get things done as a group) effective? Is good use made of group and individual resources?
Common methods of diagnosis	Typical methods includes the following: individual interview followed by group meeting to review the interview data; short questionnaire; observations of staff meetings and other day-to-day operations; and a family group meeting for self diagnosis.

iv. **Target:** Small, total organization that is relatively simple and homogenous.

Explanation and identifying examples	An example would be local professional organization. Typical problems as seen by officers might be declining member ship, low attendance or difficulty in manning special task force.
Typical information sought	How do the officers and the members see the organization and its goals? What do they like and dislike about it? What do they want to be like? What is the competition like? What significant external forces are impacting on the organization?
Common methods of diagnosis	Questionnaires or interviews are frequently used. Descriptive adjective questionnaires can be used to obtain a quick reading on the culture, "tone", and health of the organization.

v. **Target:** Interface or inter-group sub-system.

Explanation and identifying examples	These consists of the subset of the total system that contain members of two subsystem, such as a matrix organization structure requiring an individual or a group to have two reporting lines. We mean to include sub-system with common problems and responsibilities such as production and maintenance overlaps, marketing and sales overlap.
Typical information sought	How does each sub-system see the other? What problems do the two groups have in working together? In what ways do the sub-system get in each other's way? How can they collaborate to improve the performance of both groups? Are goals, sub-goals, and areas of authority and responsibility clear? What is the nature of the climate between the groups? What do the members want it to be?
Common methods of diagnosis	Confrontation meetings between both groups are often the method of data gathering and planning corrective actions. Organization mirroring meeting is used when three or more groups are involved. Interviews of this sub-system followed by sharing a data meeting or observation of interaction can be used.

vi. **Target:** Dyads and /or Triads

Explanation and identifying examples	Superior/subordinate pairs, interdependent peers, linking pins-i.e. persons who have multiple group membership- all these are sub-system worthy of analysis
Typical information sought	What is the quality of relationship? Do the parties have the necessary skill for task accomplishments? Are they collaborative or competitive? Are they effective as a subsystem? Does the addition of the third party facilitates or inhibits their progress? Do they support each other?
Common methods of diagnosis	Separate interviews followed by a meeting of the parties to view any discrepancy in the interview data are often used. Checking their perception of each other's through confrontation situation is very useful. Observation is an important way to accesses the dynamic quality of the interaction.

vii. **Target:** Individuals

Explanation and identifying examples	Any individual within the organization, such as President, Division Heads, and key occupants of positions in a work flow process, e.g. quality control, R & D. In school system this would be students, teachers, and administrators.
Typical information sought	Does it perform according to the organization expectations? How does he view his play and performances? Do certain types of typical problems arise? Does it meet standards and norms of the organizations? Does it need particular knowledge, skills and ability? What career development opportunities he has, wants or needs? What pain is he experiencing?
Common methods of diagnosis	Interviews, information derived from diagnostic works team meetings, or problems identified by personnel department are sources of information. Self-assessment growing out of team or sub-system intervention is another source.

viii. **Target:** Roles

Explanation and identifying examples	A role is a set of behaviors enacted by a person as a result of his occupying certain position with in the organization. All persons have certain roles requiring certain behavior, such as the secretaries, production foreman, and accountant.
Typical information sought	Should the role behavior be added to, subtracted from, or changed? Is the role defined adequately? What is the fit between person and his role? Should the role performer be given special skills and knowledge? Is this the right person for this role?
Common methods of diagnosis	Usually information comes from observation, interviews, role analysis techniques, and a team approach to management by objective. Career planning activities yield this information as an output.

ix. **Target:** Between organization system constituting a supra-system.

Explanation and identifying examples	Example might be system of law and order in a region, including local, country, state, federal police or enforcement agencies, courts, prisons, most such supra system are so complex that change efforts tend to focus on a pair or a trio of subparts.
Typical information sought	How do the key people in one segment of the supra system view the whole and the subparts? Are there friction or any incongruities between subparts? Are they high performing and low performing sub units? Why?
Common methods of diagnosis	Organizational mirroring or developing list of how each groups see each other is a common methods of diagnose. Questionnaire and interviews are useful in extensive long-range interventions.

An alternative way to conceptualize the diagnostic components emphasizes the organizational principle processes rather than its primary target groups. Such a scheme is presented in the following tables showing the principal organization processes, the typical desired information concerning the processes, and the common methods of obtaining the information

5.2.2 DIAGNOSINING ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESS

i. **Target** (i.e. organizational process)**:** communication patterns, styles and flows.

Explanation and identifying examples	Who talks to whom, for how long, about what? Who initiates the interaction? Is it two ways or one way? Is it top-down; down up; lateral?
Typical information sought	Is communication directed up wards, downwards, or both? Are communication filtered? Why? In what way? Do communication patterns fit the natures of the job to be accompanied? What is the climate of communication? What is the place of written communication versus verbal?
Common methods of diagnosis	Observation, specially in meetings; questionnaire for large size sample, interviews and discussions with group members - all these methods may be used to collect desired information's

ii. **Target:** Goal setting

Explanation and identifying examples	Setting task objectives and determining criteria to measure accomplishment of the objective takes place at all organizational levels.
Typical information sought	Do they set goals? How is this done? Who participate in goal setting? Do they possess the necessary skills for effective goal setting? Are they able to set long range and short range objectives?
Common methods of diagnosis	Questionnaire, interviews, observations all effort ways of assessing goal setting abilities of individuals and groups with in the organization.

iii. **Target:** Decision-making, problem solving and action planning

Explanation and identifying examples	Evaluating alternatives and choosing a plan of action are an integral and central function for most organization members. This includes getting the necessary information, establishing priorities, evaluating alternatives, and choosing one alternative over all others.
Typical information sought	Who makes decisions? Are they effective? Are all available resources utilized? Are additional decisions making skills required? Are organization members satisfied with the problem solving and decision making processes?
Common methods of diagnosis	Observation of problem solving meetings at various organizational levels is particularly valuable in diagnosing this process.

iv. **Target**: Conflict Resolution and Management

Explanation and Identifying examples.	Conflict-interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intergroup-frequently exist in organizations. Does the organization have effective ways of dealing with conflict?
Typical information sought	Where does the conflict exist? Who are the involved parties? How is it being managed? What are the system norms for dealing with conflict? Does the reward system promote conflict?
Common methods of diagnosis	Interviews, third party observation, and observation of group meetings are common methods for diagnosing these processes.

v. **Target:** Making interface relations

Explanation and Identifying examples.	Interface represent these situation wherein two or more groups face common problems or overlapping responsibility. This is most often seen when members of two separate groups are interdependently related in achieving an objective but have separate accountability
Typical information sought	What is the nature of the relation between the two groups? Are goals clear? Is responsibility clear? What major problems do the two groups face?
Common methods of diagnosis	Interviews, third party observation, and observation of group meetings are common methods for diagnosing these processes.

vi. **Target:** Superior subordinate relations

Explanation and Identifying examples.	Formal hierarchical relations in organizations dictate that some people lead and others follow; these situations are source of many organizational problems.
Typical information sought	What are the extant leadership styles? What problems arise between superiors and subordinates?
Common methods of diagnosis	Questionnaires can show overall leaderships climate and norms. Interviews and Questionnaires reveal the desired leadership behavior and

In practice OD consultant works from all the tables simultaneously. Although he is interested in some specific target group and the information about that group, he is also interested in the process found in that group.

Organizational processes are the what and the how of the organization, that is what is going on? and how is it being accomplished? To know about the organization

process is to know about the organization in its dynamic and complex reality. OD practitioners typically pay special attention to the processes because of their centrality for effective organization functioning, because of their ubiquitous nature in organization, and because significant organizational problems often stem from them. Careful examination of the tables will give good sense of the inner workings of an OD program and its thrust, emphasis, and mechanics.

Finally, in an OD program, not only are the results of the diagnostic activities important, but how the information is collected and what is done with the information are also significant aspects of the process. There is active collaboration between the OD practitioner and the organizational members about such issues:

- What target group are to be diagnosed,
- How the diagnosis is best accomplished,
- What processes and dynamics are to be analyzed,
- What is to be done with the information,
- How the data will be worked with,
- How the information will be used to aid action planning.

5.3 The Action Component: Intervening in the client system

Organization Development may be viewed as approaches designed to improve an organization's adapting, coping, problem solving, and goal setting process. This is accomplished by activities in the client system called interventions which we define as set of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage with a task or sequence of task where the task goal are related directly or indirectly to organizational improvement. Planing action and executing action, and evaluating the consequences of the actions are an integral and essential part of most OD intervention.

This emphasis on action planning and action taking is a powerful feature of OD and, in some respect is a distinguishing one.

In most OD interventions there are two goals: a learning goal and an accomplishing a task goal.

OD problem solving interventions tend to focus on the real organizational problem that are central to the needs of the organization rather than on hypothetical, abstract problems that may or may not fit the members' needs.

OD interventions utilize several learning models, not just one.

The dual features of learning and action are combined in most OD interventions. In some interventions the learning aspect predominates, and in others, the action aspect predominates; but both aspects are present in most interventions.

Action program in OD is closely linked with explicit goals and objectives. Careful attention is given to the problem of translating goals into observable, explicit, and measurable actions or behaviors, and equal care is given to the related problem of ensuring that actions are relevant to and instrumental for goal attainment. The following questions are thus an integral part of organization life:

- How does this action relate to the goal we have established?
- What are the action implications of that goal for me, for my subordinates, my group?
- When we say we want to achieve certain goal, what do we really mean by that, in measurable terms?
- Given the alternative forms of action, which one seems most appropriate to achieve the goal we have set?

Diagnosis, action taking and goal setting are inextricably related in an OD program. These three components of OD are also the basic components of action research and it is for this reason that the OD is viewed as organizational improvement through action research.

Organization Development is a continuous process of the cycling of setting goals and objectives, collecting data about the status quo, planning and taking actions,

based on the data and evaluating the effects of actions through additional data collection.

5.4 The Process Maintenance Component: Maintaining and Managing the OD process itself

Managing OD process means actively seeking answers to the following questions:

- Are we being timely and relevant in our interventions?
- Are our activities producing the effects we intended and wanted? If not why not; if so, why?
- Is there continued "ownership", that is, involvement, commitment, and investment, in the program by the client?
- What are the total system ramifications of our efforts? Did we anticipate these? Are any of the ramification undesirables? If yes what do we do about them?
- What about the culture of our own OD group? Must it be changed in any ways? Are we solving problems effectively, managing against clearly understood goals, and modeling the kind of interpersonal climate we think desirable in an organization?

Process maintenance component is designed to accomplish the following objectives:

- To model self analysis and self refection as means of self improvement;
- To model the action research principle of goal setting coupled with data feedback loops to guide and evaluate actions;
- To work to ensure ownership of the interventions and the entire program by organization members

- To model the ability to detect and cope with problems and opportunities in the internal and the external environment

- To test for relevancy of the program to the organization's needs?

- To test for timeliness of the interventions;

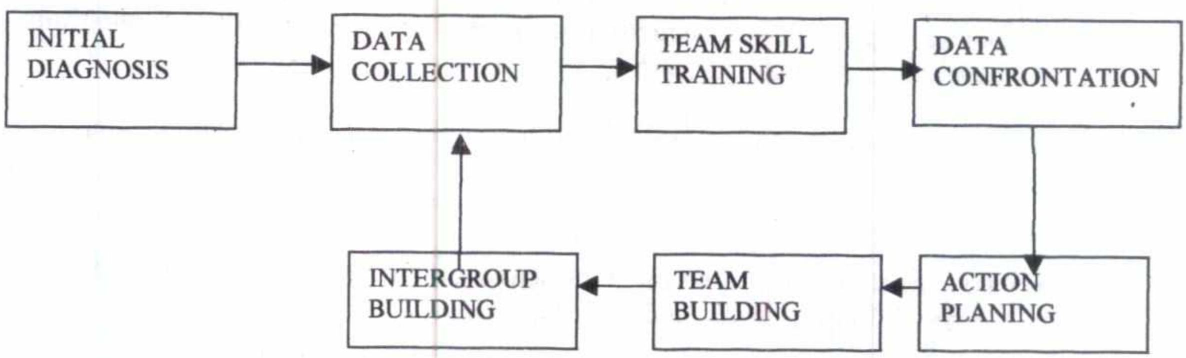
- To ensure that intended and unintended consequences do not obviate the organization's and the OD program's goals.

This component, maintenance and management of the OD process may help explain why there are many aborted OD efforts and few long-range, successful ones

Managing the OD process effectively can spell the difference between success and failure for the improvement effort.

QUESTIONS:

1. Process maintenance component makes OD program an ongoing process----- Explain.
2. Action is dictated by diagnosis component ---elaborate.
3. The steps of typical OD program are illustrated in the following fig.



Identify the operational components of OD in the above fig with explanations.

LESSON-6

ACTION RESEARCH AS PROCESS AND APPROACH

6.1 ACTION RESEARCH

A basic model underlying most organization development activities is the action research model-a data-based, problem-solving model that replicates the steps involved in the scientific method of inquiry. Three processes are involved in action research:

1. Data collection,

2. Feedback of the data to the clients, and

3. Action planning based on the data.

Action research is both an approaches to problem solving - a model or a paradigm, and a problem-solving process - a series of activities and events. The importance of action research as an underpinning for OD seems not to be appreciated sufficiently; and second, there seems to be some misunderstanding about what action research really is.

6.1.1 ACTION RESEARCH AS PROCESS:

Action research may be described as a process, that is, as an ongoing series of events and actions. We define action research as, "The process of systematically collecting research data about an ongoing system relative to some objective, goal, or need of that system; feeding these data back into the system; taking actions by altering selected variables within the system based both on the data and on hypotheses; and evaluating the results of actions by collecting more data."

This definition characterizes action research in terms of the activities comprising the process: first a static picture is taken of an organization. On the basis of "what exists," hunches and hypotheses suggest actions. These actions typically entail manipulating some variable in the system that is under the control of the action researcher (this often means doing something differently from the way it has always been done). Later, a second static picture is taken of the system to examine the effects

of the actions taken. These steps are the same steps, described, as being what the OD practitioner does as he attempts to improve an organization's functioning.

Several authors have noted the importance of viewing action research as a process. Stephen Corey, an early advocate of action research in education, states: "The process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decisions and actions is what a number of people have called action research." Elsewhere Corey defines the term more in terms of a practitioners' tool: "Action research in education is research undertaken by practitioners in order that they may improve their practices."

In a study of the Tremont Hotel in Chicago, Willian F.Whyte and Edith L. Hamilton described their work as follows: "What was the project? It was an action-research program for management. We developed a process for applying human relations research findings to the changing of organization behavior. The word process is important, for this was not a one shot affair. The project involved a continuous gathering and analysis of human relations research data and the feeding of the findings into the organization in such a way as to change behavior."

This study by White and Hamilton is a particularly cogent example of the role of action research in improving an organization. Although the study itself was conducted in 1945 and 1946 - before the term organization development was introduced - it would be considered an OD program today, even though it was based solely on an action research model.

In the following figure-6.1, French presents a diagram of the process of action research as it relates to organization development. His diagram points up the iterative or cyclical nature of the process. He clarifies the model as follows:

"The key aspects of the model are diagnosis, data gathering, feedback to the client group, data discussion and work by the client group, action planning, and action." The sequence tends to be cyclical, with the focus on new or advanced problems as the client group learns to work more effectively together.

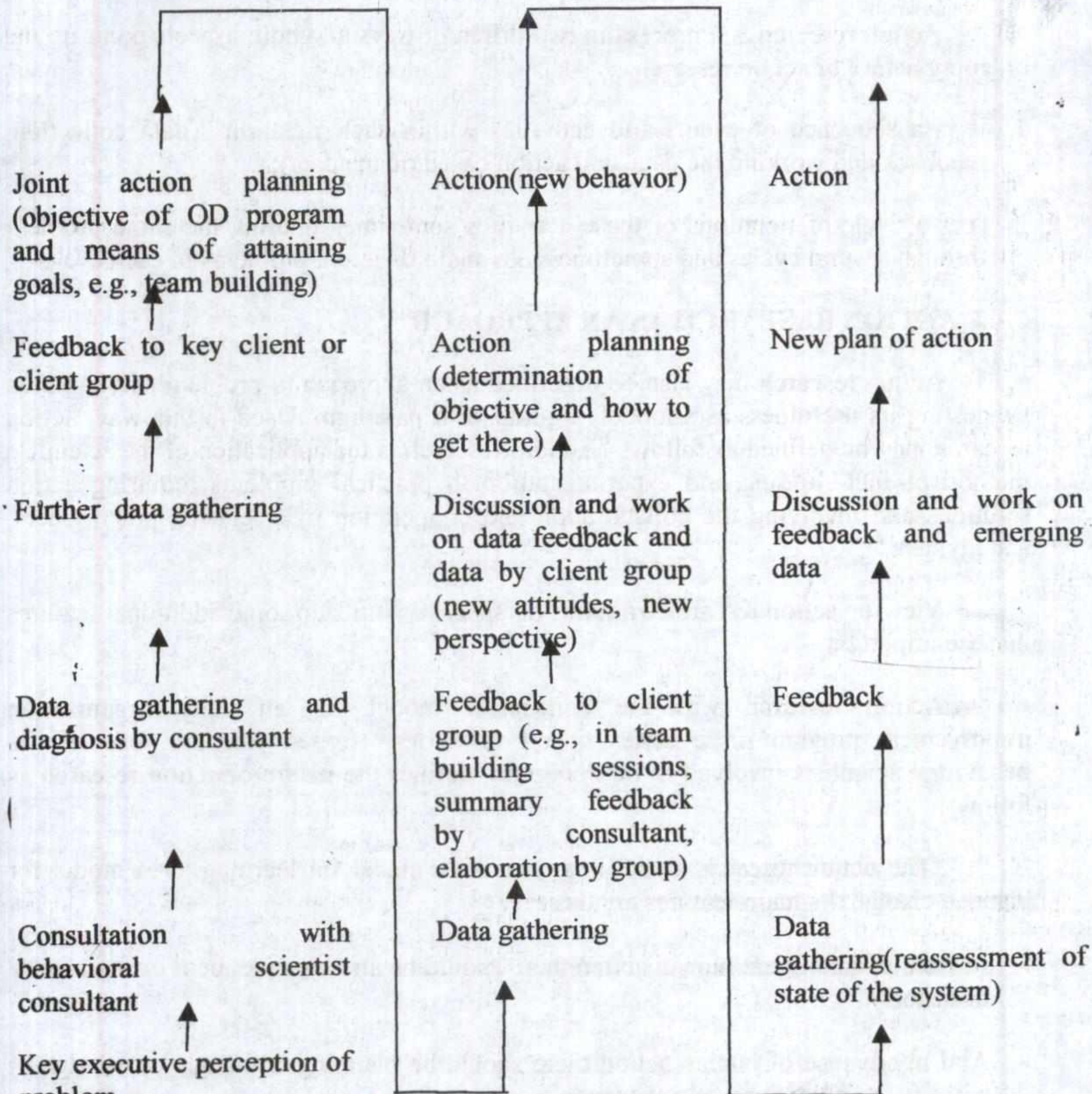

Joint action planning (objective of OD program and means of attaining goals, e.g., team building)
Feedback to key client or client group
Further data gathering
Data gathering and diagnosis by consultant
Consultation with behavioral scientist consultant
Key executive perception of problem
Action(new behavior)
Action planning (determination of objective and how to get there)
Discussion and work on data feedback and data by client group (new attitudes, new perspective)
Feedback to client group (e.g., in team building sessions, summary feedback by consultant, elaboration by group)
Data gathering
Action
New plan of action
Discussion and work on feedback and emerging data
Feedback
Data gathering(reassessment of state of the system)

Figure-6.1

Action research is a process in two different ways and both aspects point up the on going nature of action research:

1. it is a sequence of events and activities within each iteration (data collection, feedback and working the data, and action based on the data);

2. It is a cycle of iterations of these activities sometimes treating the same problem through several cycles and sometimes moving to different problems in each cycle.

6.1.2 ACTION RESEARCH AS AN APPROACH

Action research may also be described as an approach to problem solving, thus suggesting its usefulness as a model, a guide, or a paradigm. Used in this way, action research may be defined as follows "Action Research is the application of the scientific method of fact- finding and experimentation to practical problems requiring action solutions and involving the collaboration and cooperation of scientists, practitioners, and laymen."

Viewing action research from this perspective points up some additional features that are important.

Action research was the conceptual model for an early organization improvement program in a series of oil refineries. Herbert Shepard, one of the behavioral scientists involved in that program, defines the nature of action research as follows:

"The action research model is a normative model for learning, or a model for planned change. Its main features are these:

- In front of intelligent human action there should be an objective, be it ever so fuzzy or distorted.

- And in advance of human action there should be planning, although knowledge of paths to the objective is always inadequate.

- Action itself should be taken a step at a time, and after each step it is well to do some fact-finding.

- The fact-finding may disclose whether the objective is realistic, whether it is nearer or more distant than before, whether it needs alteration.
- Through fact- finding, the present situation can be assessed, and this information, together with information about the objective, can be used in planning the second step.
- Movement toward an objective consists of a series of such cycles of planning – acting - fact-finding - planning.

Shepard diagrams his concept his concept of the action research model as shown in following figure -6.2

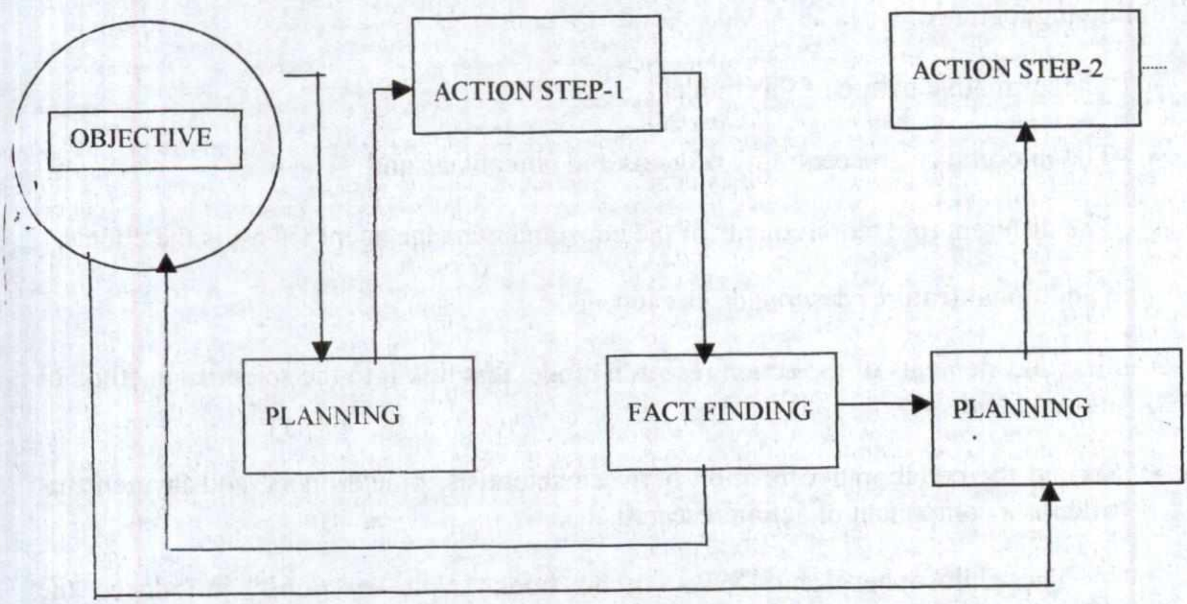


Figure-6.2

Shepard highlights the relations between goals (objectives), planning, and action in his diagram - a point we think is a very important feature of action research. And both he and French emphasize that action research is research inextricably linked to action; furthermore, it is research with a purpose, that is to say, to guide present and future action.

In an action research approach, the role of the consultant/change agent takes on a special form, as shown by Shepard:

" The role is to help the manager plan his actions and design his fact-finding procedures in such a way that he can learn from them, to serve such ends as becoming a more skillful manager, setting more realistic objectives, discovering better ways of organizing. In this sense, the staff concerned with follow-up is research consultants. Their task is to help managers formulate management problems as experiments."

By viewing action research as an approach to problem solving we have noted the following features:

- The normative nature of this model,
- The importance and centrality of goals and objectives, and
- The different role requirements of the consultant/change agent vis-a-vis the clients.

Two additional features deserve discussion –

- first, the elements of the action research model that link it to the scientific method of inquiry; and
- second the collaborative relation between scientists, practitioners, and laymen that often is a component of action research.

The philosopher John Dewey in his book "*How we think*" introduced the paradigm for problematical inquiry that serves both as the model for the scientific method and as the model for action research. He identified the following five phases of reflective thinking:

1. Suggestion, ii) intellectualization, iii) hypothesizing, iv) reasoning, and v) testing the hypothesis by action.

This approach to problem solving is translated into the scientific method steps as follows.

2. First the scientist is confronted with a problem, obstacle, or new idea that he wants to understand (Dewey's suggestion phase). He identifies the problem, intellectualizes about it (what we usually call "thinking"), and arrives at the point where he can formulate a hypothesis about the problem. (A hypothesis is a conjectural statement positing the relations between two or more phenomena, usually referred to as a "cause" and an "effect.").

3. The next step, a critical one, consists of the scientist reasoning or deducing the consequences of the Hypothesis.

4. The final step consists of observing, testing, or experimenting to see if the relation between the two phenomena expressed in the hypothesis is verified or disconfirmed.

These steps for the scientific method are identical with the steps outlined by Corey for action research.

According to Coray, the significant elements of a design for action research are:

1. The identification of a problem area that sufficiently concerns an individual or a group. The group wants to take some action.

2. The selection of a specific problem and the formulation of a hypothesis or prediction that implies a goal and a procedure for reaching it. This specific goal must be viewed in relation to the total situation.

3. The careful recording of actions taken and the accumulation of evidence to determine the degree to which the goal has been achieved.

4. The inference from this evidence of generalizations regarding the relation between the actions and the desired goal.

5. The continuous resets of these generalizations in action situations.

If the problem under attack is one of concern to many people, or if it is likely that the experiment will affect many people, the action research should involve these people. It then becomes cooperative action research.

An example applying action research to a typical organizational problem might be helpful.

Suppose that the problem is unproductive weekly staff meetings-they are poorly attended; members express low commitment and involvement in them; a low level of activity and interaction is common in them; and they are generally agreed to be unproductive. Suppose also that you are the manager in charge of both the meetings and the staff and that you desire to make the meetings a vital, productive instrument for your organization. Following the action research model, the first step is to gather data about the status quo. Assume this has been done, and the data suggest the meetings are generally disliked and regarded as unproductive. The next step is to search for causes of the problem and to generate one or more hypotheses from which you deduce the consequences that will allow the hypotheses to be tested. Say you come up with four hypotheses as listed below. Note the very important feature that an action research hypothesis consists of two aspects: a goal and an action or procedure for achieving that goal.

1. Staff meetings will be more productive if I solicit and use agenda topics from the staff rather than have the agenda made up just by me.

2. Staffs meetings will be more productive if I rotate the chairmanship of the meeting among the staff rather than my always being chairman.

3. Staff meetings will be more productive if we have them twice a week instead of only once a week.

4. I have always run the staff meetings in a brisk "all-business- nonsense" fashion; perhaps if I (a) loosen up on what can be discussed and how, (b) encourage more discussion, (c) listen to what is said more carefully, and (d) am more open about how I am reacting to what is being said, then staff meetings will be more productive.

Each of these action research hypotheses has a goal, or objective (better staff meeting productivity), and each has an action, or procedure, for achieving the goal. Additional work would be done to clarify and specify the goal and the actions in more detail, and then the hypotheses would be systematically tested (implemented) and evaluated for their effects through data collection.

Another distinguishing feature of action research is collaboration between individuals inside the system-clients-and individuals outside the system-change agents or researchers. Havelock, for example, defines action research as the collaboration of researcher and practitioner in the diagnosis and evaluation of problems existing in the practice setting. It provides the cooperating practitioner system with scientific data about its own operation which may be used for self-evaluation.

Elsewhere Havelock discusses "collaborative Action Inquiry," which is similar to "action research." However, this model places greater emphasis on service to the practitioner system and on the collaborative teaming of research and practitioner. The inquiry team collaborates on defining goals, on all phases of the research, and on change strategies. Almost all authors stress the collaborative nature of action research, with some seeing it as the primary reason for the model's efficacy.

It is a widely held belief that people tend to support what they have helped to create. Such a belief is highly congruent with the collaborative aspect of the action research model and impels practitioners and researchers alike to cooperate extensively with client system members. Such a point of view implies that the client system members and the researcher should jointly define the problems they want to address, should define the methods used for data collection, should identify the hypotheses relevant to the situations, and should evaluate the consequences of actions taken.

1. "Action research is an on going process." Explain
2. Discuss the cycle nature of Action Research proposed by French.

LESSON-7

HISTORY, USE, AND VARIETIES OF ACTION RESEARCH.

John Dewey translated the scientific method of problem solving into terms understandable by practitioners and laymen, and these seminal ideas were incorporated into action research several years later.

The origin of action research can be traced to two independent sources. One source, John Collier, was a man of practical affairs; the other, Kurt Lewin, was a man of science. John Collier was commissioner of Red Indian Affairs (in USA) from 1933 to 1945, a role in which he had to diagnose problems and recommend remedial programs for the improvement of race relations. Collier found that effecting changes in ethnic relations was an extremely difficult process and required joint effort on the part of the scientist (researcher), the administrator (practitioner), and the layman (client).

Collier called this form of research action research. Taking effective actions requires research directed to important practical problems, and the solutions must be relevant and feasible. To be able to implement a good action plan also requires cooperation of the client. Action research seemed to afford a means to mesh these diverse elements.

The other major source for theory and practice of action research, Kurt Lewin, was a social psychologist that was profoundly interested in applying social science knowledge to help solve social problems. In the mid-forties and early fifties, Lewin and his students conducted action research projects in many different behavioral domains: Lewin applied action research principles to intergroup relations and to changing eating habits; Lippitt, and Lippitt and Radke, applied the tool to an extensive community relations project; Baavelas conducted an action research project on leadership training; Coch and French applied the model to studying resistance to change in an industrial plant.

Lewin's work with social agency practitioners engaged in eradicating prejudice led him to conclude that research to help the practitioner was imperative. His answer to the need was action research. Only by conducting research could action people generate standards by which to measure progress. Speaking to this problem he said:

In a field that lacks objective standards of achievement, no learning can take place. If we cannot judge whether an action has led forward or backward, if we have no criteria for evaluating the relation between effort and achievement, there is nothing to prevent us from making the wrong conclusions and to encourage the wrong work habits. Realistic fact-finding and evaluation is a prerequisite for any learning. Social research should be one of the top priorities for the practical job of improving intergroup relations.

For the Lewin group, action research represented a linking of experimentation and application and at the same time, men of science and men of action. As an example Lippitt, in the preface to his book on community action research, states: "Bringing together in a single cooperative adventure the skills and resources of both men of science, and men of action, this project is an example of 'action research.'"

Whyte and Hamilton studied the effects of human relations practices in a large hotel; Elliott Jaques used the action research model in effecting change in the culture of a factory in England; Cyril Sofer applied the methods in three diverse organizations undergoing change for which he was a researcher-consultant; Floyd Mann, and Seashore and Bowers, applied the methods to industrial plants undergoing changes in leadership; Shepard, Katzell, and others, working at a large refinery, used action research to effect a planned change program; Morse and Reimer's field experiment investigating leadership styles and participation in an insurance company is an example of action research; and Miles, Hornstein, Callahan, Calder, and Schiavo used action research to investigate the processes of self-renewal in a school system. The payoff from a good action research project is high: practical problems get solved, a contribution is made to theory and to practice in behavioral science, and greater understanding grows between scientist, practitioner, and layman.

Action research projects may be directed toward diverse goals, there by giving rise to several variations of the model. Lewin, for example, suggested two broad categories of a action research: the investigation of general laws leads to contributions to theory and practice, and to generalizations about neutral phenomena; the diagnosis of a specific situation leads to solving immediate, practical problems.

Raymond datzello, in the refinery action research project, suggested three types of situations in which the research consultant staff were providing data feedback to managers:

The first situation was described as "adventitious," that is, the research group happened to have already collected data that turned out to be quite useful to someone at a later time.

The second situation represented data collection on refinery-wide basis of a preplanned, systematic nature, that is, a period pulse taking of the organization.

The third situation was to work intensively with a small " demonstration" group, continuously collecting data on all sorts of topics and feeding them back to the group as they were needed. The second situation is often found in programs involving surveys taken, say, annually. In this situation it is possible to measure changes in various parts of the organization over time. The third situation is also found in organization development programs where a team of consultants has time and energy to spend on researching the consequences of behaviors within a small group with whom they are working intensively.

Chein, Cook, and Hardingl enumerate four varieties of action researches diagnostic, participant, empirical, and experimental. In diagnostic action research, the scientist enters a problem situation, diagnosis, and makes recommendations for remedial treatment to the client. The recommendations are intuitively derived, not pre tested, and usually; come from the scientist's experience or knowledge. Often the client group does not put the recommendations into effect. This gave rise to a second kind of action research, participant action research, in which the people who are to take action are involved in the entire research and action process from the beginning. This involvement both facilities a carrying out of the actions once decided upon and keeps the recommended actions feasible and workable. Empirical action research is that in which the actor keeps systematic, extensive records of what he did and what effects it had. This is similar to the practitioner's keeping a day-to-day diary. Limitations of this method are the difficulties found in any clinical data collecting: the actor may have too few experiences to draw from; he may encounter situations too divergent from one another to compare them; his situation may be unique and may not permit generalizations; he may lack objectivity in evaluating his own performance; and he may find difficulties inherent in being both researcher and change agent simultaneously. A

fourth variety of action research, the experimental, is controlled research on the relative effectiveness of various action techniques. There is almost always more than one possible way of trying to accomplish something. The problem is to find which is the best. This is research on action in the strictest sense of both words. These authors indicate that experimental action research may make the greatest contribution to the advancement of scientific knowledge, but at the same time it is the most difficult to accomplish. The experimental nature of the research permits definitive testing of hypotheses and that is good. Controlling conditions to the extent that the hypothesis is tested in exactly the same way over several situations is difficult to do, however, when clients want immediate answers to pressing problems. In situations like these, the research aspects of the project become subordinated to the problem-solving- remedial treatment requirements of the situations. OD practitioners typically utilize participant action research and, occasionally, experimental action research. The participant model is highly congruent with current OD practices, and the experimental model, while being congruent, is simply harder to implement. In this regard, we maintain that the practice of organization development itself is in a sense a result of the experimental action research model, in that certain kinds of interventions (actions and hypotheses) were found to be effective by practitioners for achieving organization improvement and they were kept in the repertoire, while other interventions were found to be ineffective and were dropped from use.

LESSON 8

WHEN AND HOW TO USE ACTION RESEARCH IN ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

The OD process is basically an action research program in an organization designed to improve the functioning of that organization. Effective improvement programs almost always require a database, that is, they rely on systematically obtained empirical facts for planning action, taking action, and evaluating action.

Action research supplies an approach and a process for generating and utilizing information about the system itself that will provide a base for the action program. The collaborative inquiry feature of action research suggests to practitioners and laymen alike the desirability for jointly determining central needs, critical problems, and hypotheses and actions. The potential experimental nature of actions inherent in action research provides a different "set" for managers as they try to solve problems, that is, viewing problems in cause-effect terms and viewing solutions to problems as only one action hvpothesis from a range of several.

The systematic collection of data about variables related to the organization's culture-which many laymen are only now coming to view as important determiners of performance-and testing the effects of managerial actions on these variables offer new tools for understanding organization dynamics. All these features fit with a program to improve the organization.

The nature of organization development and action research is very similar They are both variants of applied behavioral science; they are both action oriented; they are both data based; they both call for close collaboration between insider and outsider; and they are both problem-solving social inventions. This is why we believe a sound organization development program rests on an action research model.

LESSON-9

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

9.1 OD INTERVENTIONS AN OVERVIEW

The term OD interventions refer to the range of planned programmatic activity clients and consultants participate in during the course of an organization development program. These activities are designed to improve the organization's functioning through enabling organization members better to manage their team and organization culture. OD interventions constitute the continually evolving technology-the methods and techniques-of the practice of organization development. Knowing the OD intervention armamentarium and knowing the rationale underlying the use of different interventions contributes substantially to understanding the philosophy, assumptions, nature and processes of organization development.

9.1.1 A DEFNITION OF OD INTERVENTIONS

The term OD interventions are currently being used in several different ways. On the one hand, it is due to the fact that it quite accurately (if not precisely) refers to several orders of meaning in terms of level of abstraction. Is an OD intervention something that someone does to an organization, or is it something that is going on, that is an activity? It is both. We prefer, however, that emphasis be placed on the activity nature of interventions; interventions are "things that happen", activities, in an organization's life. One use of the term that is common with practitioners and laymen alike is that an intervention is something the outside consultant does to the client system. The major shortcomings of this definition are , first, that it does not provide for the client system doing something to itself without the assistance of an external, or even internal, consultant; and, and second, it denies the joint collaboration that takes place between consultant and client. In OD programs, individuals and units within the organization often initiate activities designed to improve their functioning and do so on their own. These activities can clearly constitute OD interventions. The term is often used to refer to any learning technique or method available to the practitioner. Thus, any one of the extant methods available, what Burke and Hornstein call "the social technology of OD," is an intervention according to this use. (These techniques are available both to the client system and to consultants.) This is probably the most common use, and it is an appropriate one. The technology of OD consists of educational

activities, methods, and techniques; some "things to do" and "things to be sure not to do"; questionnaires, observation and interview schedules, and so forth. Any of these can appropriately be considered an intervention when it is used to bring about organization improvement. Common usage also finds the term applied to the following different levels of activities:

A single task, say, a two-hour decision-making exercise.

A sequence or series or related tasks designed around some theme or objectives; for example, Beckhard's confrontation meeting is a series of tasks designed to surface and organization's major problems, determine the priorities for solving the problems, and assign responsibilities for actions.

A "family" of activities that are related but may be quite different; for example, the set of activities called team-building interventions are a wide variety of diverse activities all designed to improve a team's effectiveness as a unit, and the activities may relate to ways to perform the task better or to ways to improve the relations between the members.

The overall plan for relating and integrating the organization improvement activities that an organization might be engaged in over a period of years. (this is generally referred to as the intervention strategy, the strategy of intervention, or the OD strategy of the organization development program) All of these are correct uses of the term intervention, but they relate to different levels of abstraction and can thus be confusing at times.

Finally, to give our definition of the term: OD interventions are sets of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage with a task or a sequence of tasks where the task goals are related directly or indirectly to organizational improvement. Interventions constitute the action thrust of organization development; they " make things happen" and are "what's happening".The OD practitioner is a professional versed in the theory and practice of organization development. He brings four sets of attributes to the organizational setting:

- a set values;
- a set of assumption about man,

- organizations, and interpersonal relationships;
- a set of goals and objectives for himself and for the organization and its members;
- and a set of structured activities that are the means to implementing his values, assumptions, and goals.

These activities are what we mean by the word intervention.

9.2 THE MAJOR FAMILIES OF OD INTERVENTIONS

Not all OD programs contain all the possible intervention actives, but wide range of activities is available to the practitioner. As we see it, the following are the major "families" or types of OD interventions.

- Diagnostic Activities: fact-finding activities designed to ascertain the state of the system, the status of a problem, the "way things are." Available methods range from projective devise like "build a collage that represents for you your place in this organization" to the more traditional data collection methods of interviews, questionnaires, surveys, and meetings.

- *Team-building Activities*: activities designed to enhance the effective operation of system teams. They may relate to task issues, such as the way things are done, the needed skills to accomplish tasks, the resource allocations necessary for task accomplishment; or they may relate to the nature and quality of the relationships between the team members or between members and the leader. Again, a wide range of activities are possible. In addition, consideration is given to the different kinds of terms that may exist in the organization, such as formal work teams, temporary task force teams, and newly constituted teams.

- *Intergroup Activities*: activities designed to improve effectiveness of interdependent groups. They focus on joint activities and the output of the groups considered as a single system rather than as two subsystems. When two groups are involved, the activities are generally designated intergroup or interface activities: when more than two groups are involved , the activities are often called organizational mirroring.

- *Survey-Feedback Activities*: related to and similar to the diagnostic activities mentioned above in that they are a large component of those activities. However, they are important enough in their own right to be considered separately. These activities center around actively working the data produced by a survey and designing action plans based on the survey data.

- *Education and Training Activities*: activities designed to improve skills abilities, and knowledge of individuals. There are several activities available and several approaches possible. For example, the individual can be educated in isolation from his work group (say, in a T-group comprised of strangers), or he can be educated in relation to his work group (say, when a work team learns how better to manage interpersonal conflict). The activities may be directed toward technical skills required for effective task performance or may be directed toward leadership issues, responsibilities and functions or group members, decision making, problem solving, goal setting and planning, etc.

- *Technostructural Activities*: activities designed to improve the effectiveness of the technical or structural inputs and constraints affecting individuals or groups. The activities may take the form of (1) experimenting with new organization structures and evaluating their effectiveness in terms of specific goals, (2) devising new ways to bring technical resources to bear on problems.

- *Process Consultation Activities*: activities on the part of the consultant "which help the client to perceive, understand, and act upon process events which occur in the client's environment." These activities perhaps more accurately describe an approach, a consulting mode in which taught skills in diagnosing and managing them. Primary emphasis is on processes such as communications, leader and member roles in group's leadership and authority, and intergroup co-operation and competition. Emphasis is also placed upon learning how to diagnose and develop the necessary skills to be effective in dealing with these processes.

- *Grid Organization Development Activities*: activities invented and franchised by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, which comprise a six-phase change model involving the total organization. Internal resources are developed to conduct most of the programs, which may take from three to five years to complete. The

model starts with upgrading individual managers' skills and leadership abilities, move to team-improvement activities, then to intergroup relations activities. Later phases include corporate planning for improvement, developing implementation tactics, and concluding with an evaluation phase assessing change in the organization culture and looking toward future directions.

- *Third-party peacemaking Activities*: activities conducted by a skilled consultant (the third party), which are designed to "help two members based on confrontation tactics and an understanding of the processes involved in conflict and conflict resolution.

- *Coaching and Counseling Activities*: activities that entail the consultant or other organization members working with individuals to help them (1) define learning goals; (2) learn how others see their behavior; (3) learn new modes of behavior to see if these help them to achieve feedback given by others to an individuals. A second feature is the joint exploration of alternative behaviors.

- *Life-and Career-Planning Activities*: activities that enable individuals to focus on their life and career objectives and how they might go about achieving them. Structured activities led to production of life and career inventories, discussions of goals and objectives, and assessment of capabilities, needed additional training, and areas of strength and deficiency.

- *Planning and Goal-setting Activities*: activities that include theory and experience in planning and goal setting, utilizing problem-solving models, planning paradigms, ideal organization vs. real organization "discrepancy" models, and the like. The goal of all of them is to improve these skills at the levels of the individual, group, and total organization.

9.2.1 SOME CLASSIFICATION SCHEMATA FOR OD INTERVENTIONS

There are many possible ways to classify OD interventions. Several have already been given: the families of interventions represent one approach, and Bennis's types of intervention represent another approach. Our desires to construct several classification schemata showing intervention from several perspectives. In this way, we can better accomplish our objective of examining OD from a kaleidoscopic rather than from a microscopic point of view. One way to gain a perspective of OD interventions is

to form a typology of interventions based on the following questions: (1) Is the intervention directed primarily toward individual learning, insight, and skill building or toward group learning? (2) Does the intervention focus on task or process issues? (Task is what is being done; process is how it is accomplished, including how people are relating to each other and what processes and dynamics are occurring.). A four-quadroon typology constructed by using these two questions is shown in the adjoining fig-9.1.

Individual vs Group dimension

Task vs Process Dimension	Focus on individual	Focus on the group
Focus on task	Role analysis technique Education: technical skills; also decision making, problem solving, goal setting, and planning. Career Planning Grid OD Phase- 1 Job enrichment and Management By Objective	Technostructural changes Survey Feedback Confrontation Meeting Team building session Intergroup activities Grid OD phase-2, 3.
Focus on process	Life planning Process consultation with coaching and counseling of individuals Education: group dynamics, planned changes Stranger T – Group Third party peace making Grid OD phase-1	Survey feedback Team-building session Intergroup activities Process consultation Family T-group Grid OD phase 2,3

Figure-9.1

This classification scheme presents one approximation of the categories of various interventions; it is difficult to pinpoint the interventions precisely because a single intervention may have the attributes of more than one of the quadrants.

Interventions simply are not mutually exclusive; there is great overlap of emphasis and the activity will frequently focus on, say, task at one time and process at a later time. Generally, however, the interventions may be viewed as belonging predominantly in the quadrant in which they are placed. It is thus possible to see the interventions do differ from each other in terms of major emphasis. Another way to view interventions is to see them as designed to improve the effectiveness of a given organizational unit.

Given different organizational targets, what interventions are most commonly used to improve their effectiveness? This is shown in following fig-9.2.

Target group	Types of Interventions
Interventions designed to improve the effectiveness of individuals	Life and career planing activities Role analysis technique Coaching and counseling Sensitivity training (T- Group) Education and training to increase skills, knowledge in the areas of technical task needs, relationship skills, decision making, problem solving, planning, goal setting skills Grid OD phase-1
Intervention designed to improve the effectiveness of DYADS/TRIADS	Process Consultation Third party peacemaking • Grid OD phases 1, 2.
Interventions designed to improve the effectiveness of TEAM & GROUPS	Team building-Task directed -Process directed Family T group Survey feedback Process consultation Role analysis technique "Startup" Team building activity Education in decision making, problem solving planing, goal setting in group setting.

Intervention designed to improve the effectiveness of INTERGROUP RELATIONS.	Intergroup activities-Task directed -process directed Organization mirroring Technostructural intervention Process consultation Third party peacemaking of group level Grid OD phase-3 Survey feedback
Interventions designed to improve the effectiveness of the TOTAL ORGANIZATION	Technostructural activities Confrontation meeting Strategic planing activities Grid OD phases-4, 5, 6 Survey feedback

FIGURE-9.2

Examination of both the figures reveals redundancy and overlap in that specific interventions and activities appear in several classification categories. A positive feature of the redundancy is that it suggests patterns among the interventions that the practitioner knows but that may not be readily apparent to the layman(client). Some of these patterns become more apparent in another conceptual scheme(fig-15.3) for categorizing the OD interventions

The scheme rests on an attempt to determine the central, probable underlying causal mechanisms of the intervention, that is, the underlying dynamics of the intervention that probably are the cause of its efficacy. This scheme is more controversial: different authors might hypothesize different casual dynamics. This is due partly to the relative paucity of theory and research on interventions. But the practitioner chooses and categorizes interventions on the basis of assumed underlying dynamics of change and learning, and it might therefore be helpful to present a tentative classification scheme based on these mechanisms. Several hypothesized causal mechanisms inherent in OD interventions may lead to change and learning. These causal mechanisms are found to greater and lesser degrees in different interventions, and it is probable that the efficacy of the different interventions therefore rest on different causes. Some features of different interventions that may be casually related to learning and change are presented below. These are used to construct the following fig-15.3.

Feedback: This refers to learning new data about oneself, others, group processes, or organizational dynamics-data that one did not previously take active account of. Feedback refers to activities and processes that "reflect" or "mirror" an objective picture of the real world. Awareness of this "new information" may lead to change if the feedback is not too threatening.

Awareness of Changing Sociocultural Norms: Often people modify their behavior, attitudes, values, etc., when they become aware of changes in the norms that are helping to determine their behavior. Thus, awareness of new norms has change potential because the individual will adjust his behavior to bring it in line with the new norms. The awareness that "this is a new ball game" or that "we're now playing with a new set of rules" is here hypothesized to be a cause of changes in individual behavior.

Increased Interaction and Communication: Increasing interaction and communication between individuals and groups may in and of itself effect changes in attitudes and behavior. Homans, for example, suggests that increased interaction leads to increased positive sentiments. Individuals and groups in isolation tend to develop "tunnel vision" or "autism," according to Murphy. Increasing communication probably counteracts this tendency. Increased communication allows on to check his perceptions to see if they are socially validated and shared.

Confrontation: This term refers to surfacing and addressing differences in beliefs, feelings, attitudes, values, or norms to remove obstacles to effective interaction. Confrontation is a process that actively seeks to discern real differences that are "getting in the way," surface those issues , and work on the issues in a constructive way. Many obstacles to growth and learning exist; they continue to exist when they are not actively looked at and examined.

Education: This refers to activities designed to upgrade (1) Knowledge and concepts, (2) outmoded beliefs and attitudes, (3) skills.

In organization development the education may be directed toward increasing these three components in several content areas: task achievement, human and social relationships and behavior, organizational dynamics and process, and processes of managing and directing change. Education has long been an accepted change technique.

Some interventions emphasize one mechanism of change over others. A tentative typology based on this principal underlying change mechanisms is presented in Figure-9.3.

Hypothesized Change Mechanism	Interventions Based on Change Mechanism
Feedback	Survey Feedback T – Group Process consultation Organization mirroring Grid OD instruments
Awareness of Changing Sociocultural Norms	Team building T-group Intergroup Interface Session First three phases of Grid OD.
Increased Interaction and Communication	Survey Feedback Intergroup Interface Session Third-party peacemaking Organizational mirroring Management By Objective Team building Techostructural change
Confrontation and working for resolution of differences	Third party peacemaking Intergroup Interface Session Coaching and counseling individuals Confrontation meeting Organization mirroring
Education through : 1) New Knowledge 2) Skill practice	Career and planning Team building Goal setting, decision making, problem solving, planning activities T- group Process consultation

Figure-9 3

This classification scheme, while differentiating between interventions, also shows the many multiple phases that are found in many of the activities. We are only beginning to understand the underlying mechanisms of change in interventions. As that knowledge increases, greater precision in the selection of intervention activities will be possible. The issue seems to be stable as follows: OD does in fact work; why it works is less well known and understood We find that another convenient classificatory scheme can be formed by categorizing OD interventions into those directed toward team improvement, towards improving intergroup relations, and toward the level of the total organization, and those interventions that focus directly on personal, interpersonal, and group process. This scheme is similar to the typology based on target groups presented in Figure –15.2, but separates out the "process" interventions for special attention. As a final note, in addition to knowledge about various interventions and knowledge about the appropriateness and timeliness of interventions, the OD practitioner is cognizant of the many dimensions inherent in each particular activity. Since an intervention contains the possibility for going in many directions, the practitioner attends to the range of alternatives in his own inputs. For example, in a team building meeting, the practitioner will have various dimensions in his head that guides his inputs and contributions. These dimensions can be explained through looking at the questions the practitioner may be asking himself:

- We are dealing with individual behavior right now; how can this learning be translated to learning for the group?
- We are dealing with group phenomena right now; how can this learning be translated to learning for the individuals?
- We are focusing on task competencies and requirements; how do these related to process issues and understanding of the group's dynamics?
- We have just learned about a phenomenon by experiencing it; what theoretical or conceptual material would augment this learning?
- We are dealing with issues and forces impinging on this group from outside the group; What activities must be designed to facilitate more appropriate handling of these interface issues?
- We are dealing with an old problem in a new way; does that signal a change in the sociocultural norms of this group, and are the members aware of it?
- We are diagnosing areas of interpersonal and intergroup conflict; what interventions are appropriate to deal with these issues?

Q. What is OD intervention? Classify it.

LESSION-10

TEAM INTERVENTIONS

10.1 TEAM-BUILDING INTERVENTIONS

Probably the most important signal group of interventions are the team-building activities the goals of which are the improvement and increased effectiveness of various teams within the organization. Some interventions focus on the family group, an intact, permanent work team composed of a boss and his subordinates; while other interventions focus on special teams such as "start-up" teams, newly constituted tams due to mergers or organization structure changes, task forces, committees, and the like. The team-building interventions are typically directed toward four major substantive areas: diagnosis, task accomplishment, team relationships, and team and organization process. These separate thrusts are diagramed in figure –10.1

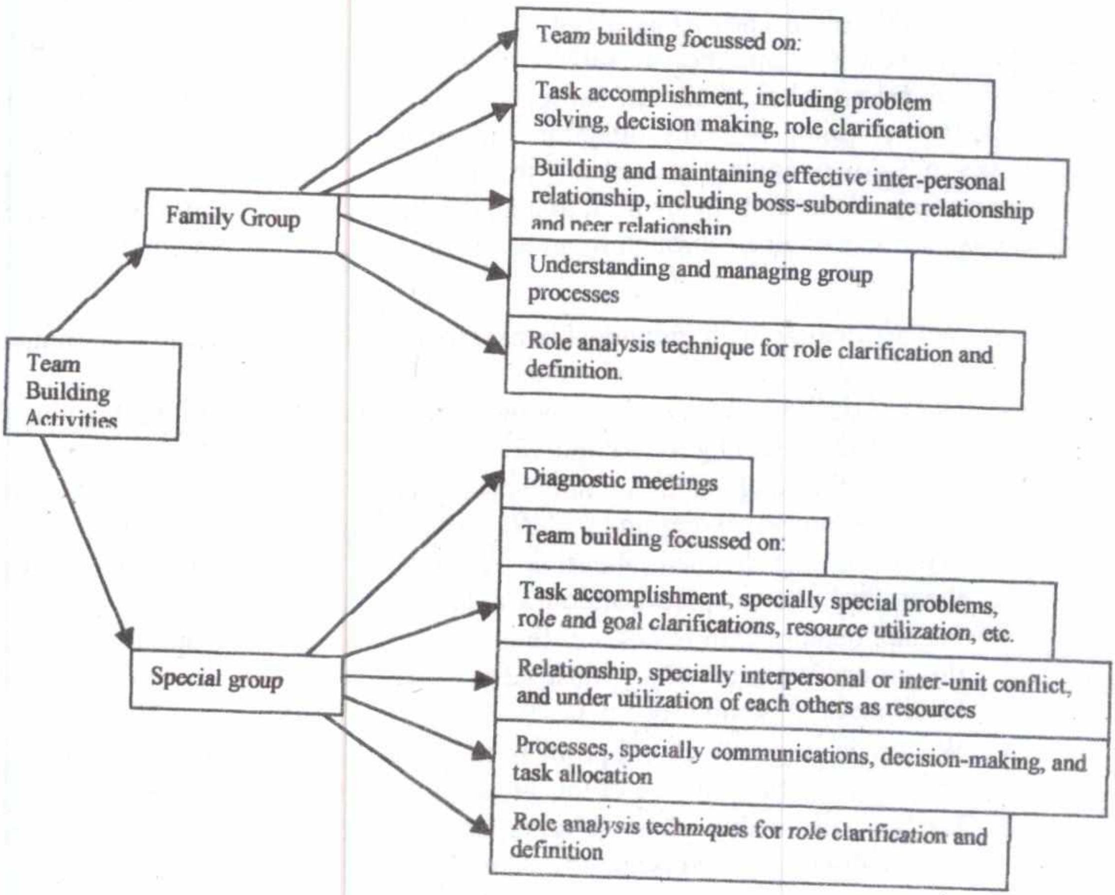


Figure-10.1

Let us examine several of these interventions as they might be conducted with a family group. The major actors are a consultant, who is not a member of the group (the third party), the group leader, and the group members.

10.2 THE FAMILY GROUP DIAGNOSTIC MEETING

The purpose of the family group diagnostic meeting is to conduct a general critique of the performance of the group, that is, to take stock of "where we are going" and "how we are doing," and to surface and identify problems so that they may be worked on. Typically the leader and the consultant discuss the idea first, and if it appears that a genuine need of a diagnostic meeting exists, the idea is put to the group for their reactions. The leader may structure his testing for the group's reaction in the form of the following questions:

- What problems do we have that we should work on?
- How are we doing in regard to our assigned tasks?
- How is our relationship with each other?
- What opportunities should we be taking advantage of?
- What are we doing right and wrong?

If it is decided to conduct the family group diagnostic meeting, after some thinking about their own performance, the group assembles for a half-day or a day meeting. These are several ways to get the diagnostic data out, that is, to make the information public:

- A total-group discussion involving everyone making his contributions to the total assemblage
- Sub-Grouping, which involves braking down into smaller groups where a more intensive discussion takes place, then the subgroups reporting back to the total group

- Pairing of two individuals who interview each other or who simply discuss their ideas with each other, each pair then reporting back to the total group.

When the data are shard throughout the group, the next step consist of discussing the issues, grouping the issues in terms of themes (say, planning problems, interface problems, goal ambiguity problems), and getting a preliminary look at the next action step. The next action steps may call for a family team-building meeting, may assign different persons to task groups to work on the problems, or may include a number of other strategies that involve moving from the diagnostic data to corrective action taking.

It should be noted however that the primary focus of the family group diagnostic meeting is to surface issues and problems that should be worked on and to decide how to take action steps. Taking action is generally a post meeting activity or an activity for subsequent team meetings.

The family group diagnostic meeting permits a group to critique itself and to identify its strengths and problem areas, and it allows everyone to participate in generating the necessary data. The data then form the basis for planning future actions Such a meeting requires only a minimal expenditure of time. Semiannual diagnostic meetings afford an excellent method for staying on top of problems. A key secret to the success of a short diagnostic meeting is the realization by all participants that the meeting is for the purpose of identifying problems, not solving problems (an activity that may require considerably more expense of time and resources).

Diagnostic meetings for newly constituted groups, say task forces or new teams resulting from mergers or acquisitions, are similar in form and function to the family group diagnostic meeting. These meetings have to be held more frequently in order to stay ahead of the problems. Furthermore, linking diagnostic meetings with problem-solving sessions or team building session may be indicated for newly constituted teams.

10.3 THE FAMILY GROUP TEAM-BUILDING MEETING

The family group team-building meeting has the goal of improving the teams effectiveness through better management of task demands, relationship demands, and group processes. It is an inward look by the team at its own performance, behavior, and

culture for the purpose of dropping out dysfunctional behaviors and strengthening functional ones.

The group critiques its performance, analyzes its way of doing things, and attempts to develop strategies to improve its operation. Sometimes the purpose of the meeting is a special agenda item, like developing the group's performance goals for the coming year. Often the purpose of the meeting is for the more general charge expressed in the question, How can we build ourselves into a better functioning team?

The family group team-building session is usually initiated by the supervisor in consultation with the third party. The idea is then tested for reaction against the group. (Conversely, the group may initiate the idea and take it to the boss if they sense Pressing problems that need examination and solution.)

A good length of time for the meeting is about three days. The session should be held away from the work place. The usual practice for these sessions is to have the consultant interview each of the group members and the leader prior to the meeting, asking them what their problems are, how they think the group functions, and what obstacles are in the way of the group performing better. These interview data are categorized into themes by the consultant, and he presents the themes to the group at the beginning of the meeting. The group examines and discusses the issues, ranks them in terms of their importance, examines the underlying dynamic of the problems, begins to work on solutions to the problems, and establishes some action steps to bring about the changes deemed desirable.

Often some kind of follow up meeting is held to determine whether the action steps that were outlined were taken and to determine whether or not they had the desired effects, This is the flow of events for the family group team meeting. But let us look closer at the components.

The meeting may be called for a special purpose, such as a new member coming into the group, an organization structure change, or planning for the next year; or it may primarily be devoted to maintaining and managing the group's culture and processes. If it is a special purpose meeting, time should still be allocated to an examination and critique of the group's dynamics. Several methods are available to generate data for the session. It is often desirable that the consultant interviews the entire group, using an open-ended approach, such as "What things do you see getting in the way of this group

being a better on?" This procedure introduces the consultant to the group members and allows him to assess commitment to the team building session. The consultant decides in advance, and informs his interviewees, whether or not the information each gives to him will be considered public or confidential. There seem to be advantages and disadvantages to either approach.

For example, if the information in the interviews is confidential, the interviewees may be more candid and open than they will be if they know the information is public. On the other hand treating the information as public data helps to set a climate of openness, trust, and constructive problem solving. If the information is considered confidential, the consultant is careful to report his findings in a general way that does not reveal his sources of information.

Other ways the agenda items for the meeting are developed are through such devices as the family group diagnostic meeting or through a survey. The consultant presents his interview results in terms of themes. When everyone has understood the themes, these are ranked by the group in terms of their importance, and the most important ones from the agenda for the meeting. In the course of the meeting, much interpersonal and group process information will be generated, and that is examined too. The group thus on two sets of items, the agenda items and the items that emerge from the interactions of the participants. As important problems are discussed, alternatives for action are developed. Generally, the team-building meeting involves deciding on action steps for remedying problems and sets target dates for "who will do what when".

Significant variations of the team building session entail devoting time to problem solving methods, planning and goal setting methods, conflict resolution techniques, and the like. These special activities are usually initiated in response to the needs demonstrated or stated by the group. The consultant often makes conceptual inputs (lectures or lecturettes), or he structures the situation so that a particular problem or a process is focussed on and highlighted. A wide variety of exercises may be interspersed into three days meeting depending upon the problems identified and the group phenomenon that emerged, Figure-1 suggest that team building session may be directed towards problem solving for task accomplishment, examining and improving interpersonal relationship, or managing the groups culture and processes. It may be that one of those issues is the principal reason for holding the team building.

For example, say the meeting is designed as a team problem solving session to examine the impact on the team of a new function or task being added to the group's work requirements. Even in this case a portion of the session will probably be resolved for reflecting on how the team is solving its problems, that is, critiquing the group's processes. In this way the team becomes more effective at both the task level and the process level.

10.3 ROLE ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE (RAT) INTERVENTION

The role analysis technique intervention is designed to clarify role expectation and obligation of team members to improve team effectiveness. In organization individual fill different specialized roles in which they manifest certain behaviors. This division of labor and function facilitates organization performance. Often, however, the role incumbent may not have clear idea of the behaviors expected of him by others, and equally often what he can expect from others to help fulfill his role is not understood by him or by others.

Ishwar Dayal and John M. Thomas developed a technique for clarifying the roles of the top management of a new organization in India. This technique is particularly applicable for new teams, but it may also be helpful in established teams where role ambiguity or confusion exists. The interventions is predicated on the belief that consensual determination of role requirements for team members, consisting of a joint building of the requirements for team members, consisting of a joint building of the requirement by all concerned, leads to more mutually satisfactory and productive behavior. The structured series steps role incumbent, in conjunction with team members, define and delineate role requirements. The role being defined is called the focal role. In a new organization, it may be desirable to conduct a role analysis for each of the major roles.

1. The first step consists of an analysis of focal role initiated by focal role individual. Tne role, its place in organization, the rationale for its existence, and its place in achieving overall organizations goals are examined along with the specific duties of the office. The specific duties and the behaviors are listed on chalkboard and discussed by the entire team. Behavior are added and deleted until the group and the role incumbent are satisfied,they have defined the role completely.

2. The second step examines the focal role incumbent's expectation of others. He lists his expectation of others roles in the group that is most affected by his own role performance, and these expectations are discussed, modified, added to, and agreed upon by the entire group.

3. The third step consists of explicating other's expectation and desired behaviors of the focal role, i.e. the members of the group describes what is his expectation from the incumbent role person.

The written profile is briefly reviewed at the following meeting before focal role is analyzed. The excepted role profile constitutes the role activities for the focal role person.

Upon conclusion this step, the focal role person assumes responsibility for making a written summary of the role as it has been defined; this is called a role profile and is derived from the result of the discussion in step 1 through 3. Dayal and Thomas describe the role profile as follows:

- The role profile consists of a set of activities classified as to the prescribed and discretionary elements of the role , and
- The obligation of the role to each role in its set, and
- The expectation from others in its set.

This provides a comprehensive understanding of each individual's role space.

The written profile is briefly reviewed at the following meeting before another focal is analyzed, the accepted role profile constitute the role activities for the focal role person

This intervention can be non-threatening activity with high payoff. Often the mutual demand expectations and obligations of interdependent team members have never been publicly examined. Each role incumbent wonders why the other guy is "not doing what he is expected to" while in reality each is performing as he think he is supposed to. Collaborative role analysis and definition by the entire work group cannot

only clarify who is to do what but ensures commitment to the role once it has been clarified.

This procedure can be shortened if there is already high visibility and understanding of the current activities of various role incumbents. For example, if one of the problems facing an organization is confusion over the duties of the board of directors and the president or the executive director, the following sequence can be highly productive. This occurs in a workshop setting involving the board, the president, the key subordinates.

1. With the board listening, the president and his staff member discuss this question: "If board were operating in an optimally effective way, what would they be doing?"

2. During this discussion, responses are made available on a chalkboard or large newsprint, and disagreements are recorded.

3. After forty-five minutes or so, the list is modified on the basis of general consensus of the total group.

4. The procedure is repeated, but this time the president listens while staff and board members discuss the question: " If the president were operating in an optimally effective way, what would he be doing?" Again responses are made visible during the discussion. The president responds, and then there is an attempts at consensus.

As with the longer techniques, this procedure helps clarify role expectations and obligation and frequently leads to some significant shifts in the whole world network of activities of the management group, including the board.

Q1. "The number of OD interventions is large." Comment on this statement.

Q2. Discuss in the importance of team building in an organization.

LESSION-11

INTERGROUP INTERVENTION

11.1 AN OVERVIEW:

When there is tension, conflict, or competition between groups some very predictable things happen:

- each group sees the other group as an "enemy" rather than as a neutral object;
- each describes the other group in terms of negative stereotypes; interaction and communication and interaction between the groups decrease, cutting off feedback and data input between them;
- what inter-group communication and interaction does take place is typically distorted and inaccurate;
- each group begins to prize itself and its products;
- each group believes and acts as through it can do no right ;under certain circumstances the groups may commit acts of sabotage (of various kinds) against the other group. Most people are aware of the existence of considerable intergroup conflict in organizations, and most people aware of the patterns of behavior of groups in conflict. But few people know ways to alleviate the conflict to avoid the consequences of the conflict.

Several strategies for reducing intergroup conflict have been identified in the literature. Theses are the following:

- finding a " common enemy" (an outside object or group that both groups dislike, which brings the groups together);

- increasing the interaction and communication between the groups (increased interaction under favorable conditions tends to be associated with increased positive feelings and sentiments);

- finding a superior dinette goal (a goal that both groups desires to achieve but that neither can achieve without the help of the other);

- rotating the members of the groups; and instituting some form of training.

Even knowing these strategies may not be helpful to reduce intergroup conflict– the questions still remain. How can we implement conflict-reducing mechanisms? And how do we begin?

11.2 INTERGROUP TEAM-BUILDING INTERVENTIONS

- The focus of this team-building group of OD interventions is on improving inter-group relations.

- The goals of these activities are to increase communications and interactions between work-related groups

- To reduce the amount of dysfunctional competition, and to replace a parochial independent point of view with an awareness of the necessity for inter-dependence of action calling on the best efforts of both groups.

It is not uncommon for a significant amount of dysfunctional energy to be spent in competition, misunderstanding, miscommunication, and misperception between groups. Organization reward structures often encourage such behavior through emphasis on unit goal attainment as contrasted with total-organization goal attainment. Organization development methods provide ways of increasing inter-group cooperation and communication, as we see in this series of interventions.

One set of activities developed by Blake, Shepard, and Mouton is widely applicable to situations where relation between groups is strained or overtly hostile. The steps go something like this:

Step 1. The leaders of the two groups (or the total membership) meet the consultant. Consultant asked them whether they think the relations between the two groups can be better and are asked if they are asked if they are willing to search for mechanisms or procedures that may improve intergroup relations. Their concurrence that they are willing to search for ameliorative mechanisms is all that they are asked to commit themselves to at that time. If they agree to do this, the following activities take place.

Step 2. The inter -group intervention per se begins now. The two groups met in separate rooms and build two lists. In one list they give their thoughts, attitudes. Feelings, and perceptions of the other group –what the other group is like. What it does that gets in their way, etc. In the second list the group is saying about them in its list-that is, they try to anticipate what the other group dislikes about them. How the other groups sees them, Etc. both groups build these two lists.

Step 3. The two groups come together to share with each other the information on the lists. Group A reads its list of how it sees Group B and what it dislikes about Group B. Group B reads its list of how it sees Group A and what it dislikes about it. The consultant imposes the rule that there will be no discussion of the items in the lowest and limits questions to clarifying the meaning of the lists only. Next, Group A reads its list of what it expected Group B would say about it, and Group B reads its list of what it thought Group A would say about it.

Step 4. The two groups return to their separate meeting places and are given two tasks. First, they react to and discuss what they have leaned about themselves and the other group. It typically happens that many areas of disagreement and friction are discovered to rest on misperceptions and miscommunication; these are readily resolved through the information sharing of the list. The differences between the two groups are seen not to be as great as was imagined. After this discussion, the group is given a second task: to make a list of the priority issues that still need to be resolved between the two groups. This list is generally much smaller than the original listed. Each group builds its list of these issues.

Step 5. The two groups come back together and share their lists with each other. After comparing their lists, they then together make one list containing the issues and problems that should be resolved. They set priorities on the items in terms of importance and immediacy. Together they generate action steps for resolving the issues

and assign responsibilities for the actions. "Who will do what when" is agreed upon for the most important items. That concludes the intervention.

Step 6. As a follow-up to the intergroup team-building activity, it is usually desirable to have a meeting of the two groups or their leaders to determine whether the action steps have in fact occurred and to "take a quick reading" on how the groups are doing on their action plans. This insures that the momentum of the inter-group intervention is not lost.

A slightly modified version of this procedure is presented by for Dyce and Weil based on their experiences at TRW systems. In this version, two groups who have decided to work on improving their intergroup relations come together for the inter-group team-building meeting and are separated into two meeting rooms. Each group is assigned the task of building three lists as follows:

A" positive feedback" list containing the things the group values and likes about the other group

A "bug " list containing the things the group does not like about the other group

An "empathy" list containing a prediction of what the other group is saying in its list.

The two groups come together, and spokesmen for the groups read their lists. Questions are limited to issues of clarification only; discussion of the items is disallowed.

At this point, instead of breaking into separate groups again, the total -group together build an agenda or a master list of the major problems and unresolved issues between the two groups. The issues are prioritized in terms of importance.

Sub-groups are formed containing members from each group and are given the task of discussing and working on each item in the list. After adequate time for working on the agenda items, the subgroups

All report back to the total group.

On the basis of the information from the subgroups, the work on the issues that has been going on, and the information shared by the two groups, the participant now build a list of action steps for improving inter-group relations and commit themselves to carrying out the actions. For each of the action steps, people are assigned specific responsibilities and an overall schedule of completion for the action steps is recorded.

French & Bell have found that it is possible to work simultaneously with three groups in these kinds of inter-group activities, without the participants (or the consultants) finding the procedure too confusing. For example, in working with the key people in one Indian tribal organization (USA), each of three groups were requested to develop lists about the other two groups plus themselves and to share the results in the total group. More specifically, the tribal council (one of the three groups) was requested to develop the following list:

1. How the tribal council sees the tribal staff

   Things we like about the tribal staff

   Concerns we have about the tribal staff

2. What we (the tribal council) predict the tribal staff will say about us

3. How the tribal council sees the council community action program (cap) staff

   Things we like about the cap staff

   Concerns we have about the cap staff

4. What we (the tribal council) predict the cap staff will say about us.

Concurrently, the tribal staff and the cap staff developed comparable lists reflecting their perceptions of the other two groups and their perceptions of the other two groups and their predictions of what would be said about them.

These kinds of activities have been found to bring about better inter-group relations. It has empirically been shown time and again, in diverse situations, that in a relatively short time period (say, a day) these structured inter-group activities can result in improved inter-group relations. The inter-group problems and frictions are decreased or resolved, and inter-group communication and interaction are increased.

11.3 ORGANIZATION MIRROR INTERVENTIONS

The organization mirror is a set of activities in which a particular organizational group, the host group gets feedback from representatives from several other organizational groups about how it is perceived and regarded. This intervention is designed to improve the relationship between the groups and increase the inter-group work effectiveness. It is different from the inter-group team building intervention in that three or more groups are involved, representative of other work related groups typically participate rather than the full membership, and the focus is to assist the host unit that requested the meeting.

The flow of events is as follows: an organizational unit that is experiencing difficulties with units to which it is work related may ask key people from those other units to come to a meeting to provide feed back on how they see the host unit. The consultant often interviews the people attending the meeting before the meeting takes places in order to get a sense of the problems and their magnitudes, to prepare the participants and to answer any question that the participant may have. After opening remarks by the manager of the host group in which he sets the climate by stating that his group genuinely wants to hear how the unit is perceived, the consultant feeds back to the total group information from the interviews. The outsider "fishbowl" to discuss and explore the data presented by the consultant(a fishbowl is a group sitting and talking configuration in which there is an inner circle of cheers for people who talk and outside circle of observers and non inter actors) the fishbowl allows the invited participant to talk about the host unit in a natural uninterrupted way while the host group member listen and learn. Following this the host group members fishbowl and talk about what they have heard, ask for any clarification and generally seek to understand the information they have heard. There may be at this point a general discussion to ensure that everyone understands what is been said, but at this time the participant do not start working on the problems that have been uncovered.

For actually working on the problems sub groups composed of both host group member and invited participants are formed. The sub groups are asked to identify the most important changes that need to be made to improve the host unit effectiveness. After the small group have identified the key problems the total group convenes to make a master list to work out specific action plans for bringing about the changes deemed most important. The total group hears the summary report from each sub group. Action plans are firmed up; people are assigned to task; and target dates for completion are agreed upon. This concludes the organizational mirror intervention, but a follow up meeting to assess progress and to review action steps is generally recommended.

Q "OD provide ways of increasing inter-group co-operation and communication." Discuss the various steps which is followed to achieve it.

LESSON 12

COMPREHENSIVE INTERVENTION

12.1 AN OVERVEIW

Some OD interventions are sufficiently comprehensive to be categorized as total organizational interventions. In increasing order of comprehensiveness are the confrontation meeting, survey feedback, and grid OD. The confrontation meeting has a total organization quality because it simultaneously involves all the managers of an organization. Survey feedback typically involves all the employees of an organization (or a major subdivision), as well as managers, and includes two major phases. Grid OD, seen in its entirety, can involve all employees at all levels and has several distinct phases spanning several years.

12.2 THE CONFRONTATION MEETING

The confrontation meeting, developed by Richard Beckhard, is a one-day meeting of the entire management of an organization in which they take a reading of their own organizational health. In a series of activities, the management group generates information about its major problems, analyzes the underlying causes, develops action plans to correct the problems, and sets a schedule of completed remedial work. This intervention is an important one in organizational development; it is a quick, simple, and reliable way to generate data about an organization and to set action plans for organizational improvement. Beckhard says of the confrontation meeting:

Experience shows that it is appropriate where:

- There is a need for the total management group to examine its own workings.
- Very limited time is available for the activity.
- Top management wishes to improve the conditions quickly.
- There is enough cohesion in the top team to ensure follow-up.

- There is real commitment to resolving the issues on the part of top management.
- The organization is experiencing, or has recently experienced, some major changes.

The Steps involved in the confrontation meeting are as follows:

Step 1. Climate setting (forty five to sixty minutes).

The top manager introduces the Sassoon by stating his goals for the meeting, citing the necessity for free and open discussion of issues and problems, and making it clear that individuals will not be punished for what they say. This is generally followed by an input from consultant regarding the importance of communication within organizations, the practicability of organization problem solving, and the desirability of addressing and solving organizational problems.

Step 2. Information collecting (one hour).

Small groups of seven or eight members are formed on the basis of heterogeneity of composition that is, there is a maximum mixture of people from different functional areas and working situations on each team. The only rule is that bosses and subordinates not be put together on the same team. The top management group meets as a separate group during this time. The charge to all the groups is as follows:

Think of yourself as an individual with needs and goals; also think as a person concerned about the total organization. What are the obstacle "demotivators." poor procedures or polices unclear goals, or the poor attitudes that exist today? What different conditions, if any, would make the organization more effective and make life in the organization better?

The groups work on this task for an hour and recorder / reports list the results of the discussion.

Step 3. Information sharing (one hour).

Reporters from each small group report the groups complete findings to the total group and these are placed on newsprint on the walls. The total list of items is categorized, usually by the meeting leader into the a few major categories that may be based on type of problem (e.g.. communications problems), type of relationship (e.g. troubles with top management), or type of area (e.g. problems with the accounting department).

Step 4. Priority setting and group action planning (one hour and fifteen minutes).

This step typically follows a break during which the items from the lists are duplicated or distribution to everyone. In a fifteen-minute general session, the meeting leader goes through the list of items and puts a category assignment on each one so that everyone has his own copy of the categorized items.

Next the participants form into functional, natural work teams reflecting the way they are organized in the organization. Each group is headed by a top manager in the group. The groups are asked to respond to a three-part charge that is to do three tasks:

- First they are to identify and discuss the issues and problems related to their area, decide on the priorities of these problems and determiner early action steps to remedy the problems that they are prepared to commit themselves (in the total group) to work on.
- Second, they are asked to identify the problems they think should be the priority issues for top management.
- Third, they are to determine how they will communicate the results of the confrontation meeting to their subordinates. This completes the confrontation meeting for all the mangers except for the top management group.

Step 5. Immediate Follow-up by Top Team (One to three hours).

The top management team meets after the rest of the participants have left to plan first follow-up action steps and to determine what actions should be taken on the basis of what they have learned during the day.

These follow-up action plans are communicated to the rest of the management group within several days.

Step 6. Progress Review (two hours)

A follow-up meeting with the total management group is held four to six weeks later to report progress and to review the actions resulting from the confrontation meeting.

This is the flow of activities for the confrontation meeting. It is an excellent way to get fast results leading toward organization improvement. Beckhard believes that the confrontation meeting provides a quick and accurate means for diagnosing organizational health, promotes constructive problem identification and problem solving, enhances upward communication within the organization, and increases involvement and commitment to action on the part of the entire managerial group. We agree with his assessment.

12.3 SURVEY FEEDBACK

An important and widely used intervention for organization development rests on the process of systematically collecting data about the system and feeding back the data for individuals and groups at all levels of the organization to analyze, interpret the meaning of and design corrective action steps upon. These activities – which have two major components, the use of an attitude survey and use of workshops are called survey feedback.

An attitude survey, if properly used, can be a powerful tool in organization improvement. Most attitude surveys are not used in an optimal way – at the maximum, most give top management some data for changing practices or provide an index against which to compare trends. At the minimum, they are filed away with little of

consequence resulting.(see fig-12.1 for a comparison of two approaches to the use of attitude surveys - the traditional approach and the survey feedback approach

	Traditional approach	Survey feedback or OD approach
Data collected from:	Rank and file, and maybe foreman	Every one in the system or sub-system
Data reported to:	Top management, department head, and to employees through news paper	Every one who participated
Implications of data are worked on by:	top management (may be)	Every one in work teams, with workshop starting at the top (all superiors with there subordinates)
Third party intervention strategy:	Design and administration of questionnaire, development of a report	Obtaining congruence of total strategy, design and administration of questionnaire, design of workshops, appropriate interventions in workshops
Action planning done by:	Top management only	Teams at all levels
Probable extent of change and improvement:	Low	high

Figure-12.1

Research at the institute for social research at the University of Michigan indicates that if the survey is to be optimally useful, the following steps must occur

Step 1. Organization members at the top of the hierarchy are involved in the preliminary planning.

Step 2. Data are collected from all organization members.

Step 3. Data are fed back to the top executive team and then down through the hierarchy in functional teams. Mann refers to this as an "interlocking chain of conferences".

Step 4. Each superior presides at a meeting with his subordinates in which the data are discussed and in which (a) subordinates are asked to help interpret the data, (b) plans are made for making constructive changes, and (c) plans are made for the introduction of the data at the next lower level.

Step 5. Most feedback meetings include a consultant who has helped prepare the superior for the meeting and who serves as a resource person.

The conclusions regarding the usefulness of survey feedback grew out of a four-year program with a large organization. In the first phase, data were gathered from some eight thousand employees throughout the company (1948). Comparable data were gathered two years later (1950) from the eight accounting departments, involving eight hundred employees and seventy-eight supervisors. In this second phase, four of the eight departments carried on feedback activities as described above; two departments served as control groups with nothing further done after one all departments meeting, and two departments were eliminated from the design because of changes in key personnel. Two years later (1952), another survey was made and the researchers found that "more significant positive changes occurred in employee attitudes and perceptions in the four experimental departments than in the two control departments. In particular, important changes occurred relative to how employees felt about " (1) the kind of work they do (job interest, importance, and level of responsibility); (2) their supervisor (his ability to handle people, give recognition, direct their work, and represent them in handling complaints); (3) their progress in the company; and (4) their group's ability to get the job".

Feedback workshops take on many of the characteristics of team-building sessions but are less likely to deal with interpersonal matters. However, they frequently focus on leadership style or on matters pertaining to cooperation and the teamwork. For example the following two items were included in a questionnaire used by French & Bell:

Management sidesteps or evades things which bother people on the job	strongly agree	agre e	undecid ed	disagre e	strongly disagree
There is good cooperation and team work in my work group.	Strongly agree	agre e	undecid ed	disagre e	strongly disagree

In this questionnaire, items were included pertaining to "Organizational Climate". "Pay and Benefits", "Relations with other Units", "Communications", "supervisor/employee relations", "Performance counseling", "My job", "pressure of work", "Management by Objectives", "Opportunities for personal growth and advancement", and "training".

This kind of attitude survey, coupled with a series of workshops involving work teams at successively lower levels of the organization can be used to create action plans and change across a wide range of variables in the social , structural, goal, an task, sub-systems of an organization. We think this approach has exciting possibilities because, in the words of Baumgartel, "it deals with the system of human relationships as a whole an it deals with each manager, supervisor, and employee in the context of his own job, his own problems, and his own work relationships". This is the thrust that permeates most OD activities and is one of the dimensions that differentiates OD from traditional interventions in organizations.

12.4 GRID ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Perhaps the most thorough going and systematic organization development program is that designed by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mounton, *Grid Organization Development.* In a six- phase program lasting about three to five years, an organization can move systematically from the stage of examining managerial behavior and style to the development and implementation of an "ideal strategic corporate model". The program utilizes a considerable number of instruments, enabling individuals and groups to assess their own strengths and weaknesses; it focuses on skills, knowledge, and processes necessary for effectiveness at the individual, group, intergroup and total organization levels. The organizational program is conducted by Internal members who have been pretrained in grid concepts.

Basic to the grid OD program are the concepts and methods of the managerial grid, also developed by Blake and Mouton, a two dimensional schematic for examining and improving the managerial practices of individual managers. One dimension underlying this diagnostic questionnaire is "concern for people" and the other dimension is "concern for production". The most effective managers are those who score high on both of these dimensions – a 9,9 position. A 9,9 management style is described as follows: "Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

The relation between the managerial grid diagnostic questionnaire and grid OD is explained by Blake and Mouton "The single most significant premise on which grid organization development rests is that the 9,9 way of doing business is acknowledged universally by managers as the soundest way to manage to achieve excellence". As used in the grid OD process, the managerial grid questionnaire becomes the vehicle for individuals and groups to examine and explore their styles. The pay off comes with a collaborative decision and plans to modify prevailing practices.

Behavioral science concepts and rigorous business logic are combined in the Grid OD program's six phases. These phases are described as follows:

Pre-phase 1:

Before an organization (usually a business corporation) begins a Grid Organization Development program, selected key managers who will later be instructors in the organization attend a Grid Seminar. In this week-long experience-based laboratory, managers learn about Grid concepts, assess their own styles using the Managerial Grid questionnaire and the two-dimensional schematic, develop team action skills, learn problem-solving and critiquing skills, work at improved communication skills, and learn to analyze the culture of a team and of an organization. Learning takes place through the use of instruments, study team projects which are judged for adequacy, critiquing of individual and team performance, and conceptual inputs.

After several managers have gone to a Grid Seminar, some might go on to advanced Grid courses for further exposure to the Grid OD approach. At a Grid Organization development Seminar, participants are taught the materials involved in Phases2-6. They both learn what the Grid OD program is all about and learn how to conduct it in their own company.

Another advanced course is the Instructor Development Seminar, in which participants actually learn to conduct an in-company Phase1 Grid Seminar. Training these managers in the various seminars accomplishes two things: the managers learn how to conduct a Grid OD program in their own organization, and they can also evaluate the Grid approach to determine whether or not they think it is a good idea for their organization to embark on such a course of action.

If, at this point, the company decides to implement a Grid Organization Development program, it might conduct a pilot Phase-1 program for volunteer managers. If the result of this is a "go" signal, then Phase 1 begins.

Phase 1: The Managerial Grid.

In this phase, a grid seminar, conducted by in-company managers, is given to all the managers of the organization. The focus of the training is similar to that described above: attention is given to assessing an individual's managerial styles; problem-solving, critiquing, and communication skills are practiced; the skills of synergistic

teamwork are learned and practiced. In this phase, managers learn to become 9,9 managers.

Phase 2: Teamwork Development:

The focus of this phase is work teams in the organization. The goal is perfecting teamwork in the organization through analysis of team culture, traditions, and the like; and also developing skills in planning, setting objectives, and problem solving. Additional aspects of this phase include feedback given to each manager about his individual and team behavior; this critique allows him to understand how others see his strengths and weaknesses in the team's working.

Working on teamwork is done in the context of actual work problems. The problems and issues dealt with are the real ones of the team. In the process of Phase 2, individuals learn how to study and manage the culture of their work teams.

Phase 3: Intergroup Development:

The focus of this phase is intergroup relations, and the goal of this phase is to move groups from their ineffective, often win-lose actual ways of relating between groups toward an ideal model of intergroup relations. The dynamics of intergroup cooperation and competition are explored. Each group separately analyzes what an ideal relationship would be like; these are shared between groups. Action steps to move toward the ideal are developed and assigned to individuals. The phase thus includes building operational plans for moving the two groups from their actual state to an ideal state of intergroup relations.

The phase consists of teams convening, in twos, to work on the issues stated above. Not all teams would pair with all others. only teams that have particularly important interface relationships do so. Often only selected members of the teams take part in the exercises and activities. These are the people who are closely work related with the other team.

Phase 4: Developing an Ideal Strategic Corporate Model:

In this phase, the focus shifts to corporate strategic planning, with the goals being to learn the concepts and the skills of corporate logic necessary to achieve

corporate excellence. The top management group engages in the strategy-planning activities of this phase, although their plans and ideas are tested, evaluated and critiqued in conjunction with other corporate members. The charge to the top management group is to design an ideal strategic corporate model that would define what the corporation would like if it were truly excellent. Fact-finding, technical inputs, etc. may be contributed from all persons in the organization.

Using the comparisons of ideal corporate logic versus real corporate logic, the top management team is better able to recognize what aspects of the culture must be changed to achieve excellence.

In a process that may take up to a year, the top executives build the ideal strategic corporate model for their particular organization. This is the model used in the next phase.

Phase 5: Implementing the ideal strategic model.

In the several different steps, the organization seeks to implement the model of corporate excellence developed in phase 4. To execute the conversion to the ideal strategic model, the organization must be reorganized. Logical components of the corporation are designated (this might be profit centres, geographical location, productlines etc). Each component appoints a planning team whose job is to examine every phase of the components operation to see how the business may be moved more in line with the ideal model. Every concept of the ideal strategic corporate model is studied by the planning team for its implications for the component. In addition, a phase 5 coordinator is appointed to act as a resource to the planning teams.

The planning teams thus conduct "conversation studies" to see how the components must change to fit the ideal strategic corporate model. An additional planning team is formed and given the charge of designing a headquarters that would operate effectively and yet keep overhead to a minimum. After the planning and assessment steps are completed, conversion of the organization to the ideal condition is implemented.

Phase 6: Systematic critique.

In this phase the results of the grid OD program, from pre-phase 1 to post-phase 5 are measured. Systematic critiquing, measuring, and evaluation lead to knowledge of what progress has been made, what barriers still exist and must be overcome, and what new opportunities have developed that may be exploited. This phase is begun after phase 5 is going well and is beginning to convert the organization well along toward the ideal model. Taking stock of where the corporation has been, how far it has come, and where it currently is thus represents a "new beginning" from which to continue striving toward corporate excellence.

Grid organization development is an approach to organization improvement that is complete and systematic and difficult. Does it work? Blake, Mouton, Barnes, and greiner evaluated a number of grid OD programs and found significant organizational improvements that showed up on "bottom-line" measures such as greater profits, lower costs and less waste. Managers themselves, when asked about their own effectiveness and that of their corporation, likewise, declared that changes for the better had resulted from the program.

Q.1) Discuss briefly the steps to be followed during confrontation meetings.

Q.2) What are the different phases of OD Grid Development? Explain briefly.

LESSON-13

PERSONNEL, INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP PROCESS INTERVENTION

13.1 AN OVERVIEW:

The activities described in this lesson are learning techniques directed toward individuals, dyad and triads, and groups. The central theme of the intervention is learning through an examination of underlying process In process consultation, an important genre of organization development intervention, there is an almost exclusive focus on the diagnosis and management of personal, interpersonal and group process.

Expertise in this area is essential for OD practitioners. Third party peace making focuses on interpersonal conflict and the dynamics of co-operation and competition in sociations of two and three. Implementing intervention in this area requires considerable competence. Sensitivity training, the educational and social invention giving rise to the laboratory training movement, typically yields learning about self, interpersonal relations and group dynamics. We view sensitivity training as and important, but not preponent, organization development intervention techniques. Life and career planning interventions are less process oriented than the other intervention in this lesson and reflect more a systematic approach to a substantive area that has heretofore received little attention. While these planning activities are intended to enhance individual functioning, the setting is generally the small group. The interventions discussed in these lesson are important ones. Depending on the overall OD strategy, not all of them might be used in a particular organization development program, but understanding the activities, and understanding when they are appropriate, is necessary for client and consultant alike.

13.2 PROCESS CONSULTATION INTERVENTION

Process consultation (P-C) represents an approach or a method for intervening in an ongoing system. The crux of this approach is that a skilled third party consultant works with individuals and group to help them learn about human and social processes and learn to solve problems that stem from process event. This approach has been around a long time; many practitioners operate from this stance. Recently Edgar Schein has pulled together the desperate practices and principles of process consultation in a comprehensive and coherent exposition.

Process consultation consists of much different intervention; it is not any single thing the consultant does. Schein states the paramount whole of P-C as follows:

"*The job of the process consultant is to help the organization to solve its own problems by making it aware of organizational processes, of the consequences of this processes, and of the mechanism by which they can be changed. The ultimate concern of the process consultant is the organization capacity to do for itself what he has done for it. Where this standard consultant is more concerned about passing on his knowledge, the process consultant is concerned about passing on his skills and values*".

Some particularly important organizational processes are communications, the roles and functions of group's member, group problem solving and decision making, group norms and group growth, leadership and authority, and inter-group cooperation and competition. The P-C consultant works with organization, typically in work teams and helps them develop the schemes necessary to diagnosis and solve the process problem that arises. Schein describes the kinds of interventions he believes the process consultant should make:

1. Agenda setting interventions, consisting of:
    - Questions which directs attention to inter-personnel issues.
    - Process analysis period.
    - Agenda review and testing procedures.
    - Meetings devoted to inter-personal processes.
    - Conceptual inputs to inter-personnel topics.
2. Feed back of observation or other data, consisting of :
    - Feed back to groups during process analysis or regular work time.
    - Feedback to individuals after meetings or after data gathering.
3. Coaching or counseling of individual.

4. Structural suggestion :

- Pertaining to group membership
- Pertaining to communication or interaction patterns.
- Pertaining to allocation of work, assignment of responsibility and lines of authority.

In Schein's view in coaching and counseling interventions which may be considered as a part of P-C or as a set of intervention in there own right, the consultant is placed in the role of responding to such questions from groups or individuals as "what do you think I should do in this instance in order to improve my performance?" " Now that I can see some areas for improvement, how do I go about changing my behavior?"

Schein sees the consultants role in coaching and counseling situations to be the following: The consultant role than becomes one of adding alternatives to those already brought up by the client, and helping the clients to analysis the cost and benefit of the various alternatives.

Thus the consultant when counseling either individuals or groups continues to maintain the postures that real improvement and change in behavior should the client decide those upon. The consultant serves to reflect or mirror accurate feedback, to listen to alternatives and suggested new ones and to assist the client in evaluating alternatives for feasibility, relevance, and appropriateness. The process consultant is similar to team building intervention and inter-group team building intervention except that in P-C greater emphasis is placed on diagnosing and understanding process events. Furthermore, there is a greater emphasis on the consultant being more none directive and questioning as he gets the group to solve their own problems.

13.3 THIRD PARTY PEACE MAKING INTERVENTION

Third party interventions into conflict situations have the potential to control (contain) the conflict or resolve it. A basic feature of a third party intervention is confrontation. The two principals must be willing to confirm the fact that conflict exist and that it has consequences for the effectiveness of the two parties involved. Third

party must know how, when and where to utilize confrontation tactics that surface the conflict for examinations. The third party must be able to diagnose conflict situation and Walton presents a diagnostic model of interpersonal conflicts. Model of interpersonal conflict based on four basic elements:

- Conflict issues
- Participating circumstances
- The conflict – relevant acts of the principals
- The consequences of the conflict

In addition conflict is a cyclical process, and the cycles may be benevolent, and malevolent, or self-maintaining. For accurate diagnosis it is important to know the source of the conflict. A major distinction is drawn between substantive and emotional conflict. The substantive issues involve disagreement over policies and practices, competitive bids for the same resources, and differing conception of role and role relationship. Emotional issues involve negative feelings between the parties (example. anger, distrust, scorn, resentment, fear, and rejection).

Intervention tactics for third party consist of structuring confrontation and dialogues between the principals. Many choice points exist for the consultant. The list of the ingredients of the productive confrontation is given by Walton as follows:

1. Mutual positive motivation. Both parties are disposed to attempt to resolve the conflict
2. Balance in the situational power of the two principal (power parity is most conducive to success.)
3. Synchronization of the confrontation efforts (initiative and readiness to confront should occur in concert between the two parties.).
4. The appropriate pacing of the differentiation and the integration phases of a dialogue (time must be allowed for working through of negative feelings and clarification and the ambivalent of positive feelings).

5. Condition favoring openness in dialogues (norms supporting openness and reassuring the openness should be structured for the parties.)

6. Reliable communicative signs (making certain each can understand other).

7. Optimum tension in that situation (there should be moderate stress on the parties).

Third party intervention into interpersonal conflict situation requires highly skilled professional and highly skilled laymen to understand the dynamic of the conflicts. The novice in the human and the social process of the organizations should not undertake this intervention group

13.4 SENSITIVITY TRAINING LABORATORY

Sensitivity laboratories were a corner stone of early OD efforts. This are used less frequently now, as intervention, but they are still an important part of OD techniques. The reduction in use of sensitivity training (or T-groups) is not due to its lack of effectiveness for OD, but rather more to its been sub-planted by such interventions as team building and process consultation. T- groups are still excellent learning and change intervention, for the personal growth and development of the individual. A T- group is an unstructured agenda less group session for about 10 to 12 members and a professional trainer who acts as catalyst and facilitator for the group. Action, reaction, interactions and the con-commitment feelings accompanying all of this are the data for the group for discussion as they strive to create a viable society for themselves. The group typically meets for three days up to two weeks. Conceptual material relating to interpersonal relations, individual personality theory, and group dynamics is the part of the program. But the main learning vehicle is the group experience.

Learning derived from the T-group vary for different individuals, but they are usually described as learning to be more competent in interpersonal relationship, learning more about oneself as a person, learning how others react to one's behavior and learning about the dynamics of group formation and group growth. Benne, Bradfort, Ronald Lippitt list the goal of laboratory training methods as follows:

1. Outcome for participant is increased awareness of and sensitivity to emotional expression and reaction in himself and others.

2. Another desired objective is greater ability to perceive and to learn from the consequences of his action through attention to feelings of his and others.

3. The staff also attempts to stimulate the clarification and development of personal values and goals consonants with a democratic and scientific approach to problems, personal decisions and actions.

4. Another objective is development of concept and theoretical insights that serves as tools in linking personal values, goals, and intentions to action consistent with this inner factors and with the requirements of the situation. One important source of concept is the findings and the methodologies of the behavioral science.

5. All laboratory programs foster the achievement of behavioral effectiveness in transaction with one's environment. The learning of concept, the setting of goals, the clarification of values, even the achievement of valid insights into self, or sometimes are far ahead of the development of the performance skills necessary to expression in actual social transaction. For this laboratory programs normally focus on the development of the behavioral skills to support better integration of intentions and actions.

The T-group is a powerful learning laboratory where individuals gain insight into the meaning and consequences of their own behavior, the meaning and consequences of others' behaviors, and the dynamics and process of group behavior. These insights are coupled with growth of skills in diagnosing and taking more effective interpersonal and group actions. Thus the T-group can give to individuals the basic skill necessary for more competent action taking in the organization. Many people think that OD means putting every in the organization through a T-group. This is not correct. The T-groups is only one technique out of many available to OD practitioner. Laboratory training while appropriate in some situation is not the basic trust of OD

13.5 LIFE AND CAREER PLANING INTERVENTION

A series of interventions focus on the life goals and the career goals of the individual organization members in order that they may better exert control over their own destinies. The interventions focus on past, present and the future. The tasks are completed by individuals and discussed in-groups. The sequence of steps enables individuals to come to grips with the following issues:

1. An assessment of life and career paths up to this point in time, noting highlights, particularly important events, choice point, strengths, and deficiencies.

2. A formulation of goals and objectives related to both desired life style and career path- these are future oriented goals.

3. A realistic plan for achieving the goals and moving systematically toward goal accomplishment; that is, the goals are specified, action steps needed to reach the goals are determined, and a schedule of target dates is established for measuring progress.

Generally life planning and career planning are done concurrently because career planing is nothing but one subset of the life planning.

Herbert A Shepard is generally acknowledged as the author and originator of life and career planning exercises. One such series is shown below:

Life goal exercise

First phase

1. Draw a straight horizontal line from left to right to represent your life span. The length should represent the totality of your experience and future expectations.

2. Indicate where you are now.

3. Prepare life inventory of important happenings for you, including the following:

    - Any peak experience you have had.

- Things which you do well.
- Things which you do poorly
- Things which you would like to stop doing.
- Things which you would like to do well.
- Peak experiences you would like to have.
- Values (e.g. power, money, etc) you want to achieve
- Things you would like to start doing now.

4. Discussion with subgroups

Second phase

1. Take 20 minutes to write your own obituary
2. Form pairs. Take 20 minutes to write a eulogy for your partner.
3. Discussions in subgroups.

Additional approaches exist to get the individual thinking about his life and career trajectory and to provide data that may be shared in small-group discussion. For example, the outline of activities suggested by Fordyce and Weil has the following steps:

1. Individuals working in small groups are asked to make a collage- a symbolic representation of their lives constructed out of art materials, old magazines and newspapers, and the like; these are posted on the walls for later discussion.
2. Individuals write two letters, the instructions for which are as follows: Now imagine that you have died ten years from now. Write a letter from one of your best friend to another good friend, telling about you and your life. What do you want him to be able to say about you? Next, imagine you have been

killed in an auto accident next week. Now write a similar letter. What would he be likely to say about you?

At this point, the group discusses the collage and letters of each individual, giving the individuals the chance to get feedback from the rest of the group about their reactions and also allowing the group to learn more about each other.

3. The third step of public sharing serves to prepare the members for the next step, consisting of building life inventory, similar to one described above. Following the preparation of the life inventory each individuals prepares a career inventory by writing answer to questions like the following :

- What facets of work (my career up to this point) do I like most, least?
- What do I think , my best skills , abilities and talents that I bring to work situations?
- What kinds of rewards do I seek from my job – money, status, recognition, being a part of a team, etc.?
- What new career areas do I want to pursue?
- What new skill do I need to develop for the new career areas?

This inventory are shared and discussed within the group.

As a final steps individuals set down a plan of actions for achieving the goals they have identified

Life and career planing activity may take only a day or sometimes entire week. These activities have great meanings for the organization members and are particularly and helpful to individuals to feel that they are in a rut, who are contemplating a career change or who has seldom introspect about their own life style and career pattern.

Q.1) "Process Consultation represents an approach for intervening in an ongoing system." Elaborate.

Q.2) What do you mean by sensitivity training. Sometime OD is identified with sensitivity training. Do you accept it.

LESSON 14

STRUCTURAL INTERVENTIONS

14.1 AN OVERVEIW:

A number of contemporary organization improvement strategies can be subsumed under the label " structural interventions." These interventions are consulting activities aimed at improving organizational effectiveness through changes in structure.

By structure we mean such aspects of organizations as how the overall work is divided among units, spatial arrangement of machines and people, work flow, operating procedures, who reports to whom, role definitions and expectations, and goals setting and compensation procedures. Thus, we view structure broadly as consisting of procedures or devices that channel, direct, or constraint activities.

Some structural interventions currently visible in practice are: quality of work life (QWL) project, socio-technical systems, work redesign, quality circle, management by objective, task force, and collateral organizations.

Are structural interventions OD interventions per se ? Generally not. Structural interventions might be intermediate outcome of OD interventions. For example, a job enrichment program might emerge as one of many outcomes of a long range OD effort. Most of the structural intervention can be implemented in ways that are congruent with OD, or may be combination of OD effort with a structural approach. Then why deal with structural intervention in OD lessons? The reasons are several.

- In the first place OD consultants and clients alike can profit by a broader understanding of the impact of structure on the people aspects of organization.

- Second a broader understanding of the range of contemporary organization improvement strategies can give consultants and clients a wider range of option to exercise. For instance a preliminary organizational diagnosis might reveal strong interest and need for production level job restructuring, and the initial consulting effort may start there.

14.2 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE PROJECTS

In recent years the phrase quality of life has been used with increasing frequency to describe certain environmental and humanistic values neglected by industrialized societies in favour of technological advancement, industrial productivity and economic growth. Many current organizational experiments seek to improve both, productivity of the organization as well as the quality of work life for its members. Although the broad productivity criteria contains some dilemmas such as short term versus long term effectiveness, this criterion is relatively straight forward when compared with the concept of quality of work in life.

- How should the quality of work in life should be conceptualized?
- How can be measured?
- What are the appropriate criteria and how are they inter-related?
- How is each related to productivity?
- Are criteria uniformly salient for all employee groups?

The concept of quality of work life embraces but is broader than the aims of a long series of legislative acts that began in the early 20th century. These acts includes child labour laws, the fair labour standard act which establish the 8 hours day and 40 hours work week and workmen's compensation law which have protected the job injured employee and have eliminated many hazardous conditions.

The concept is also broader than the aims of the unionization movement in 30's and 40's and also the notion proposed by the psychologist in the 1950's that a positive relationship existed between morale and productivity and that improved human relation would lead to enhancement of both.

Finally the concept is broader than any of the attempts at reforms in 1960's, such as, the drive for equal job opportunities and the numerous job enrichment schemes. The concept of quality of work life in 1970's nevertheless must include the values that were at the heart of these earlier reforms movements. It must also include recently emphasized human needs and aspirations such as the desire for a socially responsible

employer. Eight major concertual categories are now proposed, ranging from adequate and fair compensation for work to the social relevance of work; they provide a framework for analyzing the salient features of QWL:

1. *Adequate and fair compensation*:

The typical impetuous for employment is earning a living. How well that aim is achieved fundamentally that effects the quality of work life. More than any of the other criteria, adequacy of compensation is the relative concept. Fairness in compensation in other hands has various operational meanings. Job evaluation specifies relationship between pay and factors such as training required, job responsibility, and noxiousness of working conditions. Supply and demand of a particular skills or communities averages determine the fair level of compensation. Another standard of fairness relates to ability to pay. The adequacy and fairness of pay are partly ideological question. For example, a 20 to 1 ratio between the pay of the top executive and the hourly worker of a firm may have been excepted in recent past, but it may be regarded as too large in future.

Adequate income : does the income from full time work socially determine standards of sufficiency or the subjective standards of the recipients ?

Fair compensation: does the pay receipt for a certain work bear an appropriate relationship to the pay receipt for other work?

2. *Safety and health in work environment*:

Employers are required under legal provision to keep the work atmosphere safe and healthy from hazards from noise, pollution, and so on. Employers are required to employed congenial co-workers in work place. Safe and healthy work place is a motivating factor for a standard work force to produced the highest rate of out put at a sustain pace of work, besides it keeps the worker healthy both physically and mentally.

3 *Immediate opportunities to use and develop human capacities* :

The industrial revolution and simplistic extension of its underline logic have taken much of the meaning out of work. Work has tended to fractionate, de-skilled, and tightly controls. The planning of work has been separated from its implementation. This tendency have progressed in varying degree from one job to the next; therefore jobs differ in how much they enable employees to use and develop their skill and knowledge. Some of the job qualities necessary for these developments follows:

- Autonomy: does the work permit substantial autonomy and self control relative to external control

- Multipe skills: does the work allowa one to exercise a wide range of skills and ability rather than nearly repeat the same narow skill?

- Information and perspective: is one allowed to obtain meaning full information about the total work process and the results of his own action, so that he can appreciate the relevance and consequences of his action?

4. *Future opportunity for continued growth and security*:

Here the focus shifts from one job to career opportunities. Although the opportunity for self improvement through education and hard work has been considered once birthright, the typical industrial job can now be completely learn within a few weeks or a few years, after which the blue color worker has reached nearly the peaks of his earning and can look forward to minor improvements. Thus attention has to be given for the following aspects of life:

- Development: the extend to which one's current activities contribute to maintaining and expanding one's capabilities rather than leading to obsolescence.

- Prospective application: the expectation to use expanded or newly acquired knowledge and skills in future work assignments.

- Advancement opportunities: the ability of opportunities to advance in organizational or career term recognized by peers, family members or associate.

- Security: employment or income security associate with once work.

5. *Social integration in the work organization*:

Whether the worker has a satisfied identity and experienced self-esteem will be influenced by the following attributes in the climate of his work place:

- Freedom from prejudice: acceptance of the worker for work related trades, skills, abilities, and potential with out regard to race, sex, creed, and national origin or to life style and physical appearance.

- Mobility: the existence of upward mobility as reflected, for example, by the percentage of employees at any level who potentially could qualify for higher levels.

- Egalitarianism: the absences of stratification in work organization in terms of status symbol or steep hierarchical structure.

- Supportive primary groups: membership in face to face over groups marked by patterns of reciprocal help, socio-technical support and affirmation of the uniqueness of each individual.

- Community: the sense of community in work organization that extends beyond face to face work group.

- Inter-personal openness: the way members of the work organization relate to one another there ideas and feelings.

6. *Constitutionalism in the work organization*:

The following aspects of constitutionalism are key elements in providing higher QWL:

- Privacy: for example, withholding from employer information about the workers of the job behavior or about actions of members of his family.

- Free speech: the right to dissent from the view of superiors without fear.

- The right to equitable treatment in employee compensation scheme, job symbolic rewards, job security.

- Due process: governance by the rule of law rather than rule of men in such matters as equal opportunities in all aspects of the job, privacy, dissent, including procedures for due process and access to appeals.

Work and the total life space:

An individuals work experience can have positive or negative effects on his relation with his family. Prolonged periods of working overtime, frequent transfers can have serious effect on family life. The relationship of work to total life space is best expressed by the concept of balanced role of work. The balanced role of work is defined by work schedules, career demands, and travel requirements that do not take up leisure or family time on regular basis. Likewise balance refers to advancement and promotion that do not require frequent geographical moves.

8. *The social relevance of work life :*

The socially beneficial role of employers and socially injurious effects of its activities increasingly have become salient issues for employees. Organization acting in social irresponsible manners will cause increasing number of employees to depreciate the value of their work and careers, which in turn effects the workers self-esteem.

14.3 PERSPECTIVES ON THE QWL CRITERIA

The scheme of eight conceptual categories invites several types of analysis including how each quality of life attribute is related to others in practice, how each relates to productivity. An well-implemented QWL program helps bring changes at attitudinal levels among the employees and improves people's commitment to job as a result of improvement on the organizational culture. What impact does introducing certain QWL practices into an organization have on productivity? To illustrate this point two QWL interventions are addressed:

- Gain sharing plan
- Employee problem solving groups

14.3.1 Gain sharing plans:

When fully and properly implemented, gain sharing plans, like the Scanlon Plan, should lead to improved productivity and also to employee well being and satisfaction. Gain sharing plan includes organizational structures to improve communication and coordination; they relate pay to performance, therefore improving motivation and in some cases they include a training component that improves performance capability.

There are three basic characteristics of these Scanlon Plan:

- Philosophy of management is developed. Philosophy of cooperation(including cooperation with the union), team work, open sharing of information between employees and management, management leadership, and employee participation in decision making

- A bonus formula is developed. A historical base line is established for the level of labour productivity in the organization. Any improvement in productivity is reflected in cost saving, which go into a pool. After reserving a specified percentage of the pool, the pool is divided between the company and employee each month.

- Third feature of Scanlon Plan is set of structures for participation. Employees are urged to continually submit suggestion for productivity improvement to a committee in their area. The committee includes the representative, employees, and the union. When possible this committee implements worthwhile suggestion.

In the Scanlon plan productivity is passed on to the employee; thus the plan indirectly leads to employee well being and satisfaction, which in turn leads to attraction and retention.

14.3.2 Employee Problem Solving Groups:

There are several kinds of employee problem solving groups, including union – management QWL committees and quality control circles. The discussion here will focus on union – management QWL committees and productivity. If properly designed a hierarchy of union – management QWL committee can be powerful vehicle for developing organizational changes. A union – management committee structure by itself does nothing to improve productivity. Productivity increases can be expected if the committees adopt or cause the organization to adopt organizational changes that improves communication, coordination, or performance ability. What kinds of organizational changes can effect these factors? Some of the more promient include the following:

(a) Scanlon Plan can be adopted through the QWL committee structure.

(b) Group based incentive can increase communication and coodination.

(c) Other changes in the reward system, including changes in performance apprasal, promotion, and employee recogniztion processes can increase motivation by linking performance to valued rewards.

(d) There are many kinds of job design changes ranging from simple job rotation to individual job enrichment to team based plans such as autonomous work group.

(e) Open information sharing for improving communication.

(f) Skill training for improving individual performance capability.

(g) Participative decision making

The changes listed above are usually adopted through union – management QWL committee for enhancement of productivity.

14.4 TASK AND TECHNOLOGY FOCUSSED APPROACH

According to Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman there are four ways of embracing task and technology for implementing any change at organizational level, namely job design / redesign, socio-technical systems, quality circles, and high performance / high commitment work systems.

14.5 JOB DESIGN / REDESIGN

Job design involves a well considered / planned reorganization of the way the job is being carried out, the aim being to improve employee motivation, commitment to work as well as effectiveness in performance on jobs, reduction in absenteeism, high job satisfaction, etc.

Needs and goals of the employees as well as those of the organization should be taken into consideration in initial job design and during restructuring of the design / redesign of jobs. The following are the approaches to the job design:

- Job enrichment

- Job engineering
- Job rotation
- Job enlargement

14.5.1 Job Enrichment

Job enrichment involves vertical enlargement or addition of task to make the job richer. The aim of this exercise is to entrust more responsibilities to employees and demand accountability for organizing, planing, controling, and evaluating their own work. Herberg emphasised the use of job enrichment for augmenting work motivation and job satisfaction.

14.5.2 Job Engineering

it relates to the task to be carried out, the methods to be used, performance standards, interdependence of man and machine, flow of work between workers, work-layout, etc. Labour specialisation and efficiency are the keywords in job engineering. In addition, this approach makes use of automation, such as computers to replace labour whereever necessary.

14.5.3 Job Rotation

Job rotation involves rotation of job holders from one job to another, besides addition of a variety of tasks to be done, which reduces boredom.

14.5.4 Job Enlargement

It includes expansion of task to be carried out , therby adding variety to the tasks which reduxces monotony as well as boredom of the job holder.

14.6 SOCIO-TECHNICAL SYSTEMS PROJECTS

The concept of socio-techincal system has largely been associated with the studies and consulting work done under the auspicious Tavistock Institute in England. The essence of the emerging intervention is to try to develop a better fit between the

technology, structure, and social interaction of the work place so as to enhance desired organizational outcome. One of the earliast Tavistock studies, in British coal mining, found that broadening job scope and reintroducing a team approach to coal production, supplemented by team pay incentives, significantly improve productivity, moràle and safety. The socio – technical system consist of three main parts:

- The social system
- The technological system
- The moderator

14.6.1 The Social System: It consist of those aspects of the human side of the organization which has a bearing upon the performance of the individuals and the group, as also their attitude towards the organizational work. The social system consists of individuals and group influence, organization culture, leadership, and supervision and other contextual factors. A major contribution of the socio- technical group approach is the creation of an autonomous work group. Such a group plans there own work, controls the speed and quality of the output as well as make decision in the areas control by the management. The group also determines its own work schedule and job assignment.

14.6.2 The Technological System: These consists of technological dimensions, types of production processes, physical work settings, complexity of production processes, nature of raw materials used and so on. The three technological dimensions, i.e. task uncertainty, work flow uncertainty and task interdependence

14.6.3 The moderator: This includes work roles, goals, skills, and abilities. Work role acts as moderator and develop a set of expected behaviour for each jobholder, work role also define the relationship between the job holder performing the task and the technological requirements of the jobs or tasks. In this way, under the socio – technical system, work role helps stabilize the work relationship. Goals on the other hand, moderate the relationship between the technological and social system. For example, the autonomous work group may have a goal to assemble 500 TV a month. This may be possible for the autonomous work group to achieve autonomously so long as this is compatible with the technological system goals.

Another moderator includes the skills and ability of the people. In a society were an educated, skilled and competent work force exist, the socio – technical system approach will be effective.

14.7 QUALITY CIRCLES

Quality circles are semi- autonomous work groups, mostly comprising of six employees of the same function who volunteer to discuss and solve quality and production related problems in duty time hours. Quality circle also have an impact on quality of working conditions, employees commitment and self development.

In recent years (80's), the Quality Circles movement on India has achieved success in many industrial organizations, both public as well as private. This has helped improve the quality of work life in the organizations.

14.8 HIGH PERFORMANCE HIGH COMMITMENT WORK SYSTEM:

This approach deals with creation of a participative management structure and work culture which promotes the responsibility of the ownership amongst the workforce. Under the system the organization is designed to be a socio-technical system based on creation of an autonomous work group. Blending of the technology and team work results in a high performance – high commitment work force.

High performance – high commitment work system reinforce work culture with the goodness of team work at all levels, high delegation of authority, and common goals of the organization. They also attempts to create a better fit between technology and people, generating a sense of cooperation as well as empowerment as opposed to a limited role and contribution.

14.9 STRUCTURE STRATEGY FOCUSSED APPROACHES

Comprehensive change program focus attention on organizational structure, strategy as well as the culture. Structure focussed approach focuses on re-definitions of position and roles, interpersonal relationship as it exists as well as the expected relationship, between the position holders. This involves affecting a change in organization structure and design. The aspects which are to be covered in the structural approach to change are the organizational rules and procedures, chain of command,

plans, span of control, hierarchical systems, committees, organizational communication. reward system,

14.10 COLLATERAL ORGANIZATION

This is a parallel organization co-existing with the formal organization. It supplements the existing organization. It identifies and solves the actual problems of the organization, using groups of people outside their formal authority and communication channels. The collateral organization is able to solve more difficult problems than is possible under the formal organization. Managers interact with each other whole-heartedly, develops, problem solving skills and learn to cope with difficult problems in crisis. A collateral organization creates a more complex role for the members who interact with groups of people with changed norms, which may not be permissible under the formal hierarchical structure.

14.11 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVE (MBO)

MBO is a participating approach to management, which seeks to integrate the goals of individual with those of the organization. As a concept, MBO was introduced by Peter drucker in early fifties and popularized through the efforts of John Humble and George Odiome.

The process of the MBO involves superiors and subordinate of organization jointly identifying the common goal of the organization. They define the major areas of the individual responsibilities and the result expected which are used as guide for operating the unit and for assessing the contribution made by each of the individual managers. The process used even beyond the managerial level to include the blue colors There are two approaches to MBO :

- Individual focussed and
- Team focussed.

14.6.1 Individual focused MBO process:

It has four components:

- Goal setting ,
- Subordinate participation,
- Implementation

all these component are interrelated, and operate simultaneously to make MBO process effective.

1) **Goal Setting**: The superior and subordinates define the goals related to their jobs. While setting the goals, the following point are worth observing:

a) One must indicate the deadline for achieving the goal.

b) The performance standard to be achieved should be laid down.

c) The measurement of the performance in terms of time, cost, or physical units should be specifically pointed out.

d) The exact goal of what is to be achieved should be laid down. The goal could be in terms of achieving the sales target or task. The result to be achieved as well as the job description should be made in detail. indicating the critical job requirements, the equipment to be used, the aspect of cooperation needed in supervisory duties involved.

d) The goal should be rank listed. In order of priority

e) The goals; may be rated in terms of importance and difficulties

2) **Participation**: Subordinates' participation in goal setting makes the goal achievement possible. In order to enable the subordinates to control and plan their jobs, they must be allowed discretionary power in the job they do, which may be increased as when necessary to really plan and control the job

3) **Implementation**: This involves action planning which focuses on the way goals are to be achieved. The subordinate is given maximum leeway and choices in the implementation of goal and the superior gives him all support and guidance in his

efforts to achieve the goal and in case of any hurdle or discrepancy, necessary alterations as deemed fit are made.

4) **Performance appraisal and feedback**: This involves:

a) Establishing the criteria for the measurement or evaluation of performance.

b) Measuring the performance against the criteria at appointed periods.

c) Review of performance levels achieved by individuals at appointed periods

d) Development of an improved future performance.

Individual –focused MBO is not congruent with OD effort, since it does not focus or involve the team or group. This is, therefore, not accepted to be an effective tool.

14.6.2 TEAM FOCUSSED MBO PROCESS

Basically this approach is consistent with the individual focussed MBO approach, but it differs from the former in the sense that its goal setting process includes the entire work group plus the individuals. Further, team-focussed approach clearly focuses on the interdependencies between jobs particularly at the level of managers. In addition, this approach lays emphasis on the integration of goals among the individuals who work together instead of passing the buck of responsibility for coordination to a common superior. Team focussed MBO incorporates the following special features:

1. The key men of the organization are able to get an overall clear view of the organizational goal to be attained through consensual approach over a given period of time.

2. The total organizational goal is divided into departmental or sectional goal / targets consensually, which facilitates achievement of the respective goals and in turn the total goal.

3. The members of the organization are able to frequently discuss each other's goal mutually and suggest improvements. Each member understands his responsibility and develops interdependence in achieving the target.

4. The superiors and the subordinates review the goal performance in an environment of openness and trust, and share areas of concern with the team.

To conclude, a team based MBO succeeds provided the intervention is owned up by the CEO and the participating group members are in tune with the group process, interpersonal skills and t the same time, the client organization is absolutely sold to the idea of MBO intervention for organizational improvement. Team based MBO intervention is congruent with OD efforts so long as the whole organizational team / group is involved in target setting and performance review intended for organizational improvement.

Q.1) Describe the salient features of QWL.

Q.2) What is the impact on productivity on introducing of QWL in an organization?

Q.3) Critically examine MBO program in light of modern organization.

LESSON-15

IMPLEMENTATION AND ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

An OD program passes through phases which follows a certain sequence. It may start with the introduction of the external consultant with the client organization when the consultant gets acquainted with the organization for the purpose of OD and establishes his own identity. The consultant may have entry into the organization with reference to a specific problem, or for initiating OD activities. The consultant may start with an interaction with the clients to learn their concern and their perception about the malaise.

Once the consultant is aware of the problems and the client is enabled by him to visualize the problems, he may be called by the client for a collaborative effort for change. This may lead to:

1. Collection of preliminary information about the organization by the consultant to understand its nature. In order to get bird's eye view of the organization he may go through various reports and documents and try to understand the technology, size, the type and the socio-cultural environment of the organization.

2. He may interview the key person who matter in the organization and determine its culture. The objective of the interview is to understand the culture of the place, the importance of the key persons, the roles obtaining in the organization for developing a share understanding about:

    - The assumptions on which they operate and accomplish their roles.

    - The chief actors in the organization

3. *A look at the process* : The consultant may attend a few meetings of top officials to observe the dynamics of the interactional process, i.e. the way discussions take place, and how differences are sorted out and resolved. Such a direct glimpse of the processes taking place in the organization helps the consultant understand the organization even more than interviewing the key persons.

4. *Presentation of OD approach*: Before the start of any OD program, the consultant makes a presentation to the top management about what OD is and what it is related to in this way the participants get an opportunity not only to understand the implication of OD but also to raise queries and allay fears about it. This is a crucial period for the top management ; therefore it is advisable to invite the top rung of another organization where OD may have been successfully introduced for sharing experience with them. Subsequently top management may decide to invite OD consultant to initiate OD activities or even reject the idea.

5. *Strategy planning*: At this stage client makes up his mind as to whether to carry on with the help of the external OD consultant or with the help of the internal OD specialist. The consultant shares the data (obtained based on the understanding that he has of the organization) with top management and works out the plan along with them as to where the organization ought to go from its existing status. He has a series of alternatives as solutions to the problems which are discussed along with the resultant effects, and finally agreed to by the top team. By this method the client group gets committed to the strategy planning decision. When this is done, the client group commits itself to carrying out a particular course of action / OD intervention.

6. *Specific Intervention*: subsequent to strategic planning for change, the specific intervention is carried out and implemented. The specific intervention may be either by way of team building exercise in respective department / top level or structural change or conflict management. No matter which ever of the intervention is accepted a detailed plan is necessary. The main aspects of interventions are as follows:

- Team building is one of the goals of OD interventions.

- Collaborative work on intervention: They develop the data and work out the details. This kind of collaborative efforts leads to further strategic planning. For building a collaborative culture the following steps are involved:

a) **Data collection**: Data is again collected jointly by the consultant along with the teams tom see if any change has taken place against the chosen bench marks subsequent to the implementation of OD intervention, and to what extend. Interview or relevant instruments are used in the collection of the data.

b) **Review**: The consultant holds joint meeting with the client-team or the top team, as the case may be and shares the data with them to get an understanding of what the OD intervention has achieved.

c) Temporary formation of teams: It takes place after the review of the data. Temporary teams are formed in order to sustain the OD effort. They are responsible for continuously collecting the date and planning strategy for continuing the OD work. The team holds regular meetings for this purpose.

d) This done jointly by the top team of the organization and the consultant. They may jointly decide to concentrate more on process work or structural changes, or even take up a particular department for intervention action. At this stage, the external consultant may decide to hand over the responsibility of consultancy work to the internal OD facilitators since, after all, the external consultant cannot continue to work with the organization permanently. Moreover, it is the duty of the external consultant to help the client organization develop its internal resources to take over the responsibility of facilitating change from the external consultant.

Q. "After the problem is identified by the consultant and visualized by the client a collaborative efforts for change is taken". Elaborate.

LESSON-16

CONDITION FOR FAILURE AND SUCCESS

16.1 CONDITION FOR FAILURE AND SUCCESS

In this lesson let us look at some of the conditions that get in the way of effective organization improvement, and then at some of the conditions necessary for the successful, lasting change effort.

16.1.1 *SOME CONDITIONS OF FAILURE*

1. A continued discrepancy between top management statements of values and styles and their managerial behavior. I know of organization, which has spent considerable money and effort over several years in organization-improvement efforts. The effectiveness of the organization is only marginally increased. The top management still operates in a generally autocratic and sometimes crisis-oriented style. The rest of the organization knows this and has only limited trust in the statements of the intention from the top. There is a capability gap, which causes people to be cautious, conservative and self –protective.

2. A big program of activities without any solid base of change goals. Some organization managers install activities such as management laboratories, a piece of Managerial Grid Program, or a package of goal setting activities and assume this to be an OD activities. They don't have personal commitment to the systematic setting of the goals and plans for achieving them and to providing responsible leadership in organization improvement.

3. Confusion of ends and means.

Some managers, Having had a significant personal learning experience in a program, say, of sensitivity training, will sincerely promote a program of attendance at such activities by their colleagues, on the assumption that personal development of the managers will ipso fato result in organizational improvement. Unless the question "training for what" is answered in organization-development terms, such means will not improve organization effectiveness.

4. Short time framework

Most managers are activist. They are result oriented and impatient. One condition can doom OD efforts is an unrealistic expectation of short-term results. Even if dramatic short –run changes do occur, they are not a valid measure of real organization improvement. Three to five years is a realistic time frame in which an OD effort may be expected to show results.

5. No connection between behavioral science oriented change efforts and management service / operation research oriented change efforts.

There are a number of systematic change effort to change the operations of organizations that are not coordinated at the staff level. These produce inefficiencies and competition between staffs and do not take advantage of the synergy that is possible in a joint effort to systematically plan and conduct a change in the organization.

6. Over dependence on outside help.

With the increasing complexity of the organization and the demands of the environment, it is easy to let consultants or specialist solve the problem. In organization development effort this is not a long-term, useful strategy. The management of the organization must have a continuing personal commitment to the problems and to their solutions.

7. Over dependence on inside specialist.

This is a similar condition where the line management lets the change effort be handled entirely by the organization or staff specialists.

8. A large gap between the change effort at the top of the organization and efforts in the middle of the organization.

Frequently, the top management group will engage in major effort to improve its functioning, operations and work. This takes time and energy. During the time of this effort, there may well be an increase in communication problems and social distance

between the top group and the middle of the organization. If the changes at the top are not communicated and transferred to the next layer of organization, it is difficult to achieve an integrated organization- development effort.

9. Trying to fit a major organization change into an old structure.

Some organization-development effort have failed because managers have tried to fit some changed conditions, such as a new marketing strategy or a reorientation of effort, into an existing structure. For example in a large advertising agency, clients had contacts with the agency through a account executive. The various specialists in media and art, etc, worked through this executive. Today the clients want to make direct contact with the various specialist for the several parts of their advertising program. By maintaining the old structure and internal relationship, the agency experienced difficulty in dealing with the client needs. Only when they realized that a new structure was necessary to cope with change in the environment where they are able to handle this problem creatively.

10. Confusing "good relationship" as an *end* with good relationship as a *condition.* Some behavioral science organization change programs imply that when effective, open, trusting relationship exit among the people of the organization, you have organization health. They imply that an end goal of such a program is to establish this type of climate and relationship. They do not indicate that the effective, healthy organization , in addition to good relationship, has clear goals and definite plan for achieving them , And that the sub organizations are also working against goals. Good relationships are an important condition in an effective organization but they are not an *end stage.*

11. The search for cook book solutions.

There are still many managers who will try anything that will provide quick solution to improving organization's effective. Organization health is not subject cook book solution.

12. Applying an intervention or strategy inappropriately

There are a number of cases where particular intervention or change strategy which was effective in one organization or under one set of conditions has been borrowed and applied to another organization or set of conditions without any diagnosis as to its appropriateness in second organization. This is a form of cook book solution and it tends to produce failure rather than success.

16.1.2 SOME CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS

According to Larry Greiner report published in HBR the following are the set of common characteristics that pertain to all the successful change efforts and they are not in the less successful ones.

1 There is a pressure on the top management, which induces some arousal to action.

2.There is some form of interventions at the top, either a new member of the organization, or a consultant, or a new stuff head in organization development.

This induces some reorientation in looking at internal problems.

3. There is diagnosis of the problem areas and this induces an analysis of specific problems.

1. There is an invention of some new solutions to problems and this produces some commitment to new course of action.
2. There is some experimentation with new solutions and this produces a search for results woth the experiments.
3. There is reinforcement in the system from positive results and this produces acceptance of the new practices

Other ten conditions necessary for successful OD efforts follow:

1. there is pressure from environment , internal and external for change.
2. Some stragic person or people hurting .

3. Some strategic people are willing real diagnosis of the problem.

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4. There is leadership (Consultant, Key-Staffmen, New line executive).

5. There is collaborative problem identification between line and staff people

6. There is some willingness to take risks in new form of relationship

7. There is realistic long time perspective

8. There is willingness to face the data of the situation and work with it on changing situation

9. The situation rewards people for efforts of changing and improvement, in addition to rewarding for short term results.

10. There are tangible intermediate results.

Q.1) Discuss briefly reasons for failure of the efforts for effective organization improvement.

Q.2) What all points should be kept in the mind for implementing successful change efforts?

LESSON-17

ETHICAL STANDARDS IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Increasingly, organizational change efforts are being utilized to solve many human, structural and technological problems in contemporary organizations. This increased attention to the uses of organization development has been accompanied by growth in the number of OD consultants as well as those who have long term needs for OD efforts. Simultaneously, a growing concern about professional ethics in the field has begun to emerge. Table 17.1 depict 10 stages of changes the appropriate role behavior for change agent and client system

Stage	Purpose	Role of change agent	Role of client system	Dilemmas
Initiation	First information sharing	To provide information on background, expertise , and experience	To provide information on possible needs, relevant problems, interest of management and representative groups	Misrepresentation of the consultant's skill base and background Misrepresentation of organizational interest
Clarification	Further elaboration on initiation stage	To provide details of education, licensure, operative value, optimum working conditions	To provide a detailed history of special problems, personnel, marketplace, internal culture, and organization politics	Inappropriate determination of who the client is Avoidance of reality testing Inappropriate determination of value orientation
Specification /agreement	Sufficient elaboration of needs, interest, fees, services, working conditions, arrangements	To specify actual services, fees to be charged, time frame, actual work condition	To specify whose needs are to be addressed, goals, objectives, and possible evaluative criteria or end state outcomes	Inappropriate structuring of the relationship Inappropriate definition of changed problem Collusion to exclude outside parties

Diagnosis	To obtained an unfiltered and undistorted view of the organization's problems and processes pinpointing change targets and criterion	To collect data concerning organizational problems and processes, and to provide feedback	To assist change agent in data collection	Avoidance of problems Misuse of data Distortion and deletion of data Ownership of data Voluntary consent Confidentiality
Goal setting /action planning	To establish the specific goals and strategies to be used	To agree mutually with the client system on the goals and strategies to be used	To agree mutually with the change agent on the goals and strategies to be used	Inappropriate choice of intervention goals and targets Inappropriate choice of operative means Inappropriate scope of intervention
System intervention	The intervention into ongoing behaviors, structures, and processes	To intervene at specific targets, at a specific depth	To invest the energy and resources required by planned intervention	Assimilation into culture Inappropriate depth of intervention Coercion vs. choice, freedom, and consent to participate Environmental manipulation
Evaluation	To determine the effectiveness of the intervention strategies, energy, and resources used, as well as the change agent-client system relationship	To gather data on specified targets and report findings to the client system	To analyze the evaluation data and determine effectiveness of the intervention	Misuse of data Deletion and distortion of data

Alteration	To modify change strategies, depth, level, goals, targets, or resources utilized if necessary	To make alteration to meet original goals, or to develop new mutual goals and strategies with client system	To make known needs and expectations, and to provide the context for a modification of the original agreement, if necessary	Failure to change and lack of flexibility Adoption of inappropriate strategy
Continuation /maintenance	To monitor and maintain on going strategies, provide periodic cheeks, and continue interventions based on original or altered plans and strategies	To specify the parameters of the continuation of the maintenance of the relationship	To provide or allocate the resources required to maintain or continue the intervention	Inappropriate reduction of dependency Redundancy of efforts Withholding of services
Termination	To have the change agent disenfranchise self from the client system and establish a long term monitoring system	To fulfill the role agreed on in pervious stages and evaluate overall effectiveness from feedback from the client system	To determine the organization's state of health, and whether it has developed the adaptive change process	Inappropriate transition of change efforts to internal sources Premature exit Failure to monitor change

Q. What ethical standard should be followed by the organization for change?

LESSON-18

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE-ITS IMPLICATION

18.1 The model used to generate testable hypotheses about the impact of the interventions is based on an assumption about casual linkage in an organization that is central to the OD approach to organizational change. It is argued that the model is a reasonable approximation of that used explicitly or implicitly by most OD change agents and for that reason its tenability should be examined empirically. The model is outlined in fig-18.1

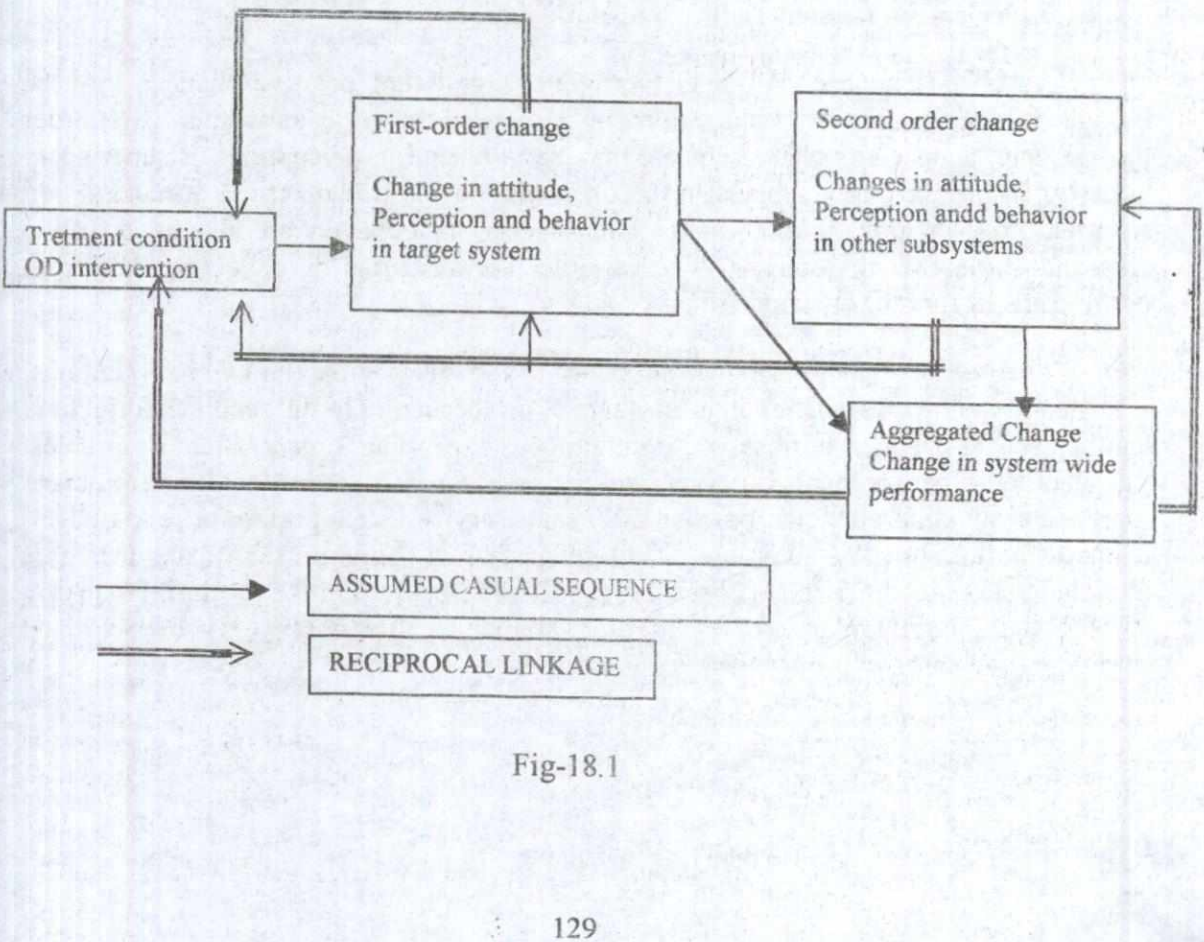


Fig-18.1

Since the interventions produces change in the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors of the individuals involved in the change program this change is called first order change. Changes of this sort may produce changes in the attitudes, perceptions and behaviors of other individuals in other parts of the organization. For example, reducing absenteeism among hourly employees, as a consequence of the interdependence that exits or are created between subsystems in the organization. This is called second order change. Finally, change in indices of the performance of the organization as a whole, indices which reflect aggregated individual behaviors, may occur as a consequence of first order change alone or the combination of both first and second order change. Thus, it is argued that changes in the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors within OD target subsystem are necessary condition for the attribution of changes in other organizational indices to the interventions. However, reciprocal causation occurs because organizational variables are interdependent and there is a feedback mechanism inherent in the change program itself.

As a consequence of the OD program, significant positive changes may be produced in perceptions of organization climate within the target subsystem (first order change) and significant positive change may be produced in perceptions of supervisory behavior within the target subsystem (second order change). The various variables used for measuring organizational climates and supervisory behavior are shown in Table-18.1 and Table-18.2 respectively. The variables are measured by collecting data from participants in form of questionnaires

These measurements are the reflections of the direct impact of OD interventions. If these measurements indicate that the changes are occurring in the predicted direction, another set of changes is observed simultaneously in other organizational variables. These other organizational variables are the indices of organizational performance. They are production rate, quality level, after sales service index, performance to budget, company bottom line and so on. As a consequence of OD program significant decreases in variance in units produced is observed, significant increases in the level of the quality is observed, significant decreases in the variance in the quality is observed and significant increases in profit index is observed.

TABLE 18.1

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE		
VARIABLES	YEAR-1	YEAR-2
TRUST		
SUPPORT		
OPEN COMMUNICATION		
COMMITMENT TO OBJECTIVES		
HANDLING OF CONFLICT		
UTILIZATION OF MEMBER RESOURCES		
SELF DIRECTION, AUTONOMY		
SUPPOTIVE ENVIRONMENT		

TABLE-18.2

SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR		
VARIABLES	YEAR-1	YEAR-2
LISTENING		
EXPRESSING IDEAS TO OTHERS		
INFLUENCE		
DECISION MAKING		
RELATION WITH OTHERS		
TASK ORIENTATION		
HANDLING OF CONFLICT		
WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE		
PROBLEM SOLVING		
SELF DEVELOPMENT		

YEAR-1 represents the starting year of OD intervention

YEAR-2 represents the year of performance evaluation.

18.2 Case Study:

The findings and the interpretations presented here are based on one series of intervention in one industrial plant. The plant employed 2600 hourly and 200 salaried employees; work was organized on an assembly-line basis. The plant operated with three shifts. A plant manger oversaw the total plant operation.

There were a number of factors which influenced the management to embark on OD program. First, the plant experienced decrease in production, quality, and profits and increase in absenteeism, turnover, and grievance rates. Second, the level of team work decreased. Finally, the plant manager had a genuine concern for improving the performance of the organization. All production supervisors-foremen-and managers-assistant superintendents and superintendents – as well as plant manager participated in various phases of OD program. The program continued for about one and half years. With the use of outside consultant.

The results of the program suggest two important conclusions about the organization development as an organizational change modality.

1. First, they indicate, given the limitation of design, that the particular change program did result in improved organizational performance, as well as positive change in attitudes and perceptions within the target subsystem. Changes in attitudes and perceptions of individuals were accompanied by changes in behavior, which were reflected, in turn, in changes in organizational performance. Thus, it can be concluded that OD can be resulted in direct change.

The extent of the impact of the program was more modest on the system performance indices than on the attitudes and perceptions of the employees. The difference in impact may be accounted for by:

a) The fact that the OD program was not an attempt to manipulate the performance indices directly and

b) By expectation effects.

The prime focus was on attitudes, behavior, and skills of supervisory and managerial personnel and the program was designed on the explicit assumption that changes in them would ultimately lead to positive change in system wide performance. At this point it is impossible to determine how much of the change in the target system might be accounted for by learning or expectation effect, or whether this trend would continue over an extended period of time.

2. Second, the result suggests some parameters within which OD may be expected to be effective and outside of which such expectation may be unwarranted. These conclusions go beyond the data at this point and the interpretation is speculative, but the assumptions are reasonable. The data indicates that perceptions of organizationally anchored phenomenon – organizational climate and supervisory behavior – improved, farther, they indicate that production variance decreased, rates of quality increased, variance in quality decreased, and profits increased. Finally, there was no change in production. While these latter finding was unexpected, the fact that the plant production figures were highly co-related with the industry production figures for the same period let to the conclusion that the rates of production are likely to be largely determined externally, by corporate policy and market conditions.

What emerges from this combination of hypothesis testing and post hoc interpretation is the importance of target group control over variable used to assess the impact of OD interventions. Use of inappropriate indices of impact can create unrealistic expectations, both on the part of the researcher and on the part of the participants in the change program itself. The decision about what can realistically be expected must come from the participants and evaluation must be made, at least in part, in terms of the kinds of results which they determine are significant. The notion of control is important, therefore, from the dual perspective of participant and observers. It is reasonable to expect that the managerial group in the study could influence quality levels within the plant; it is much less reasonable to expect that they could directly influence rate of production in the context in which they are operating.

These finding also have implications beyond the areas of organization development. For example, managerial control may be a critical variable in the failure or success of organizational change strategies. It may also be that the internal

characteristics of an organization are more important in achieving organizational change than the particular strategy employed to produce that change. In any case the findings strongly suggests that performance in human systems is affected by a complex interplay of external as well as internal factors and that performance models which exclude either set of constraints or which are based on oversimplified causal assumptions about the directness of links between interventions and outcomes are inadequate.

Much of the activity that is currently under way under the rubric of organization development is based on a closed - system approach, that is, an approach which focuses almost exclusively on internal dynamics. Because the model developed here was designed to reflect assumptions about causal linkages that are prevalent in the field, it is, in a very real sense, a closed – system model. There is an interesting awareness on the part of the organizational analysts of the importance of the external environment, however, and those involved in developing planned change strategies undoubtedly will begin to make wider use of open- system approach in their work. As these shifts from the use of closed – system to open –system strategies occur, the model used here will have to be modified to take this movement into account.

Q. Critically analyze the effected of OD in an organization.

LESSON 19

KEY CONSIDERATIONS AND ISSUES

19.1 AN OVERVIEW:

A number of interrelated issues can arise in consultant–client relationship in organization development activities that need to be managed appropriately if adverse effects are to be avoided. These issues tend to center around whether a person or the system is the client, matters of trust, the nature of consultant's expertise, the contract, diagnosis and appropriate interventions, the nature and depth of intervention, the consultant and consultant teams as model, action research as it relates to the OD process, and client dependency. There are no simple prescriptions for resolving these issues.

19.2 WHO IS THE CLIENT?

The question of who the client is quickly becomes an important issue in client – consultant relationship. We think a viable model is one in which, in the initial contact, a single manager is the client, but as trust and confidence develop between the key client and the consultant both begin to view the manager's organization as the client. Ideally, this begins to occur in the first interview. Thus, the vitality of the various organization subsystems, as well as the effectiveness and the growth of all the individual members of the client system, clearly becomes the consultant's concern.

Although this is a controversial point we find ourselves somewhat dubious about vague notions about the consultant representing the total organization when he is working with some subdivision of the total.

To be effective he must have a relationship with, and be able to influence, the people in the system with which he engages. He cannot help those with whom he does not interact - to attempt to do so would be working some unstated and mysterious agenda known only to himself. Or, if the consultant is carrying out some secret mandate of higher management, he is bound to fail in his relationship with his more immediate clients. The truth will eventually become apparent, and the consultant will be reduced to impotency. Even if he is open about some mandate from the top of the hierarchy, his effort will tend to be minimized simply because he is carrying out an externally directed

mission. Successful OD efforts are a process of mutual influence, not an imposed program from any direction.

The total system, however, will not be ignored in an effective consulting relationship with a sub division. The effective consultant will have some ideas about what courses of action will be helpful and what will be dysfunctional relative to the total system, and he will express his sentiments – concerns, in particular – to his key client. The key client, more over, will be the real expert about the broader systems, and he and the consultant will be looking for ways to improve the total. The real issue then is openness.

19.3 THE TRUST ISSUE

A group deal of the inter-action in early contacts between clients and consultants is implicitly related to developing a relationship of mutual trust. For example, the key client may be fearful that things will get out of hand with an outsider intervening in the system. Subordinates may be concern that they will be manipulated toward their superior's goal with little attention given to their own. This kinds of concern means that the consultant will need to earn trust in this and other areas and that high trust will not be immediate.

Similarly, the consultant trust of the client may be starting at neutral. He will be trying to understand the client motives and will want to surface some that are partially hidden. For example, if the client has hopes that a team building session will punish an inadequately performing subordinate, the consultant and the client will need to reassess the purpose of team building and examine whether or not that activity is the appropriate context for confronting the matter. On a positive note, the client may see OD as a means of increasing his own effectiveness and that of his subordinates, plus having hope that a successful OD effort may bring considerable recognition from his superiors. Surfacing such motives and examining their implications for effective behavior will enhance trust between the consultant and the client and will help assure the eventual success of OD activities.

19.4 THE NATURE OF CONSULTANT'S EXPERTISE

Partly because of the unfamiliarity with process consultation and other OD interventions, client frequently try to put the consultant in the role of the expert on substantive content such as on personal policy or organizational structure. It is possible

for the OD consultant to be an expert in the sense of sometimes presenting a range of options open to the client, but any extensive reliance on the traditional mode of consulting, that is giving substantive advice, will tend to negate the OD consultant's effectiveness. He will need to clarify his role with the client when this becomes an issue.

19.5 OTHER DIMENSIONS OF THE INTIAL CONTRACTS

Implicit in the discussion of the issues mention so far is the issue of consultant and client formulating the psychological contract the more formal compensation aspects of the initial contract are also important and need to be confronted for the peace of mind of both, client and consultant. It is preferable to bill the client organization monthly for any time spent on the organization's behalf, although approximate time amounts will be based on mutual agreement, with either party free to terminate the relationship should it not be mutually satisfactory.

19.6 DIAGNOSIS AND APPROPRIATE INTERVENTION

Another pitfall for the consultant is convenience of applying intervention techniques that he is familiar with or he likes. But the same may not square with the current diagnosis of the unit problems.

A consultant should do what he can do but his interventions should be reasonably appropriate with the diagnosis.

The wider the range of the intervention open to him the more he can be free to make a diagnosis unencumbered by anxiety about how to intervene.

19.7 DEPTH OF INTERVENTION

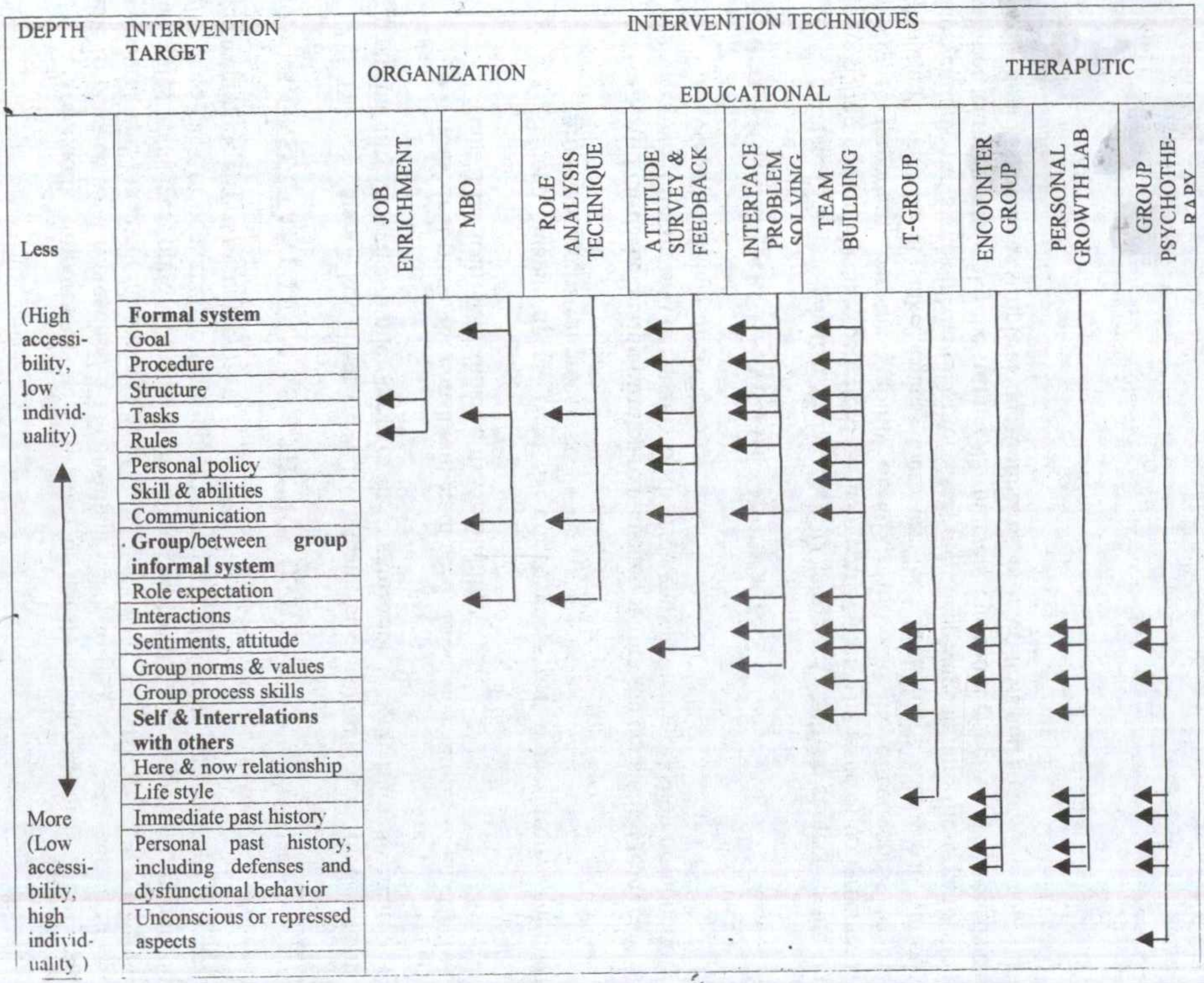
In addition to the issue of selecting interventions from a range of interventions is the question of the depth of intervention. By depth we mean the extent to which the change target is the formal system, the informal system, or the self. See figure-19.1 for a comparison of various group or organizational interventions in terms of depth. In Harrison's term this continuum is based upon accessibility and individuality. By accessibility Harrision means the degree to which the data more or less public versus been hidden or private and the ease with which the intervention skill can be learnt. By

individuality is meant the closeness the person's perception of self and the degree to which the effects of an intervention are in the individual in contrast to the organization. We are assuming that the closer one moves on this continuum to the sense of self, the more the inherent process have to do with emotion, value, hidden matters, and consequently the more potent they are to do either good or harm.

To minimize this risk Harrison suggests two criteria for determining the appropriate depth of intervention:

(a) To intervene at a level no deeper than that required to produce enduring solutions to the problems in hand.

(b) To intervene at the level no deeper than that at which the energy and resources of the client can be committed to problem solving and to change.


DEPTH
INTERVENTION TARGET
INTERVENTION TECHNIQUES
ORGANIZATION
EDUCATIONAL
THERAPUTIC
JOB ENRICHMENT
MBO
ROLE ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE
ATTITUDE SURVEY & FEEDBACK
INTERFACE PROBLEM SOLVING
TEAM BUILDING
T-GROUP
ENCOUNTER GROUP
PERSONAL GROWTH LAB
GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY
Less
(High accessibility, low individuality)
More
(Low accessibility, high individuality)
Formal system
Goal
Procedure
Structure
Tasks
Rules
Personal policy
Skill & abilities
Communication
Group/between group informal system
Role expectation
Interactions
Sentiments, attitude
Group norms & values
Group process skills
Self & Interrelations with others
Here & now relationship
Life style
Immediate past history
Personal past history, including defenses and dysfunctional behavior
Unconscious or repressed aspects

19.8 THE CONSULTANT AS A MODEL

The another important issue is weather or not the change agent is willing and able to practice what it preaches. The consultant needs to give out clear messages, i.e., his words and his apparent feelings need to be congruent. He also needs to check on meanings, to suggest optional methods of solving problems, encourage and support, to give feed back in constructive ways and to accept feedback to help formulate issues, and to provide a sprit of inquiry

19.9 CONSULTANT TEAM AS A MICROCOSM

The consultant – key client viewed as a team, or consultants working as a team, can profitability viewed as a microcosm of the organization they are trying to create.

- In the first place, the consultant team needs to set an example of an effective unit if the team is to enhance its creditability.
- Second, change agents need the effectiveness that comes from continues growth and renewal processes.
- And third, the quality of inter-relationship within the consulting team carries over directly into the quality of their diagnosis, their workshop or laboratory designs and their interventions.

19.10 ACTION RESEARCH AND THE OD PROCESS

A related issue is whether or not the OD processes itself be subject to the on going action research been experienced by the client system. The issue of congruency is of course important, but the viability of OD effort and the effectiveness of the consultants may be at stake. Unless there are feed back loops relative to various interventions and stages in the OD processes, the change agents and the organization will not learn how to make the future OD interventions more effective. The feed back loops should be made as simple as questionnaires, or interviews and so on.

19.11 DEPENDENCY ISSUE

 If the consultant is in the business of enhancing the client systems abilities in problem solving and renewal, than he is in the business of assisting the client to internalized skills and insights rather than to create prolong dependency relationship. This tends not to be much of an issue, however, of the consultant and the client can work out the expert versus facilitator issue and if the consultant subscribe to the notion that OD should be a shared technology. The facilitator role creates less dependency and more client growth than the more traditional consulting mode and the notion of the shared technology leads to rapid learning on the part of the client.

Q.1) Is OD effective? Point out the most frequent criticisms leveled against OD program with reference to its potentials.

Q.2) Critically explain the necessity of depth of intervention.

LESSON-20

THE FUTURE OF OD

20.1 AN OVERVIEW

OD seems to be absorbing increasing amounts of internal resources of organizational time and man power; increasingly OD is seems to be chosen over such other change technique as management by objective, job enrichment, management development program in USA.

Success stories of OD interventions abound in India also. To name only a few, SAIL, HMT has successfully carried out OD intervention. Larsen and Tubro in private sector is a well-known case were the management has created the post of General Manager - OD. Future of OD exists because the industrial organizations also will always exist as an important agent of change in the socio- political system. The future of OD is bright and the need for OD approach is greater today than ever before, in view of the changing scenario in India. Organizations need to survive and grow, and the OD strategies are the surest way to success. In sum, it looks like OD's time has come.

Let us now examine some of the strength and the weakness of OD and answer the question, "Is OD a passing fad?"

20.2 STRENGTH OF OD

Organizational Development draws upon a large numbers of models, theories, and practices; it borrows freely from proven procedures for improving the functioning of individuals, groups, and organizations. OD is an amalgam, a culmination from diverse sources, and as such represent the resultant of some of the best thinking from the behavioral science. The action research model for example, is the model for tracking – for staying on target, for discarding alternatives that do not meet the test of efficacy in the real world.

The focus on organization culture is a strong future of OD that portends future success. OD as a process does not recognize the importance of culture – it also suggests ways of analyzing culture and changing culture. These are the real steps of progress.

While organization development facilitates change in individuals and organizations, there is a genuine sense in which OD also brings stability. OD represent scientific methods of problem solving to human, social, and organization problems. There is great solidity and stability in having such a model to base solution upon. Change occurs of course when people are moved from a traditional haphazard, problem solving modality to that of scientific methods. But stability occurs when individuals, groups, and organization learn to apply these methods to all sorts of events in the organization. Change occurs, of course, when the win – lose, boundary – defending, competitive relations between groups are altered by OD efforts aimed at improving inter-group relations and inter-group effectiveness. But stability occurs when the awareness of interdependence of goals and efforts and the benefits of co-operation lead to reward for the groups. We believe the benefits of OD are stability and managed changes. If this is so OD has a much stronger chance of survival.

20.3 WEAKNESS OF OD

The most serious handicap of OD is its over preoccupation with the human and social dynamics of the organization to the detriment of attending to the task, technical and structural aspects and their inter-dependency. In future organization development scientist must establish linkages with practitioners in such fields as management science, personal and industrial psychology, operation research, and industrial engineering in order to provide a broader range of options for OD interventions.

Another significant weakness lies in the conceptual foundation of OD strategies. OD is limited to the models of planned change that it utilizes. OD represents the state of art, but the current state is that we have rather a limited number of models for effecting permanent change. OD seems restricted in its models regarding effective use of power in organizations. OD as practiced today will require modification. It seems that contributions such as Walton's in the area of third party peacemaking increase the range of models available for more effective management of power issues in OD efforts.

Another possible handicap to the viability of OD is that it represents a long term and expensive investment on the part of client organizations. OD does not offer short cut to total organizational improvement.

Another major weakness in the future viability of OD lies in the degree of congruence between the emerging internal organizational culture resulting from OD

efforts and the culture of various external interfaces. The higher the congruence greater the viability of the OD efforts. For example, if the internal culture of manufacturing company professes honesty, but if that part of interface between company and consumer under the control of company has elements of deception, the internal environment will ultimately take on some of the same quality.

20.4 WILL OD BE A PASSING FAD?

We are convinced that OD will be around and will survive many years to come. Current OD technology would be superceded by additional or modified practices as the years unfolds. OD is a response to the needs of both organizations and individuals for improvement strategies that will bring individual aspirations and organizational objectives together. There will always be that need

OD is not a passing fad. OD will evolve new forms, new technology, new concepts, new models in the future as it changes and grows with new inputs from practitioners and clients in many different situations. It will continue to reflect the state of the art even as the art changes. OD will probably enlarge its scope in the future encompassing specialist from such disciplines as organization theory, operation research, personnel and industrial, community development and mental health.

Beckhard suggest that the theme of the future is the active and continuing search for organizational excellence. Thousands of managers worldwide will be engaged in that search. OD is the only technology that will enable the goal to be reached. Blake and Mouton likewise voice their optimism for the future of OD. Their argument is that OD is based on behavioral science in a fundamental way and this foundation will contribute to its continued viability.

Q. Discuss briefly the future of OD.

LESSON-21

INDIAN EXPERIENCE IN ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

21.1 A universal preoccupation of enterprise managers is to develop and adapt their organization to better cope with and shape the environment in which the enterprise operates. Productivity and motivation are two words inevitably linked.

Through out the century, the efforts of the managers to cope with and shape their environments, through the way they organize and operate their enterprises, has followed certain identifiable themes.

The major theme during the first third of the century was the attempt, through better human engineering to rationalize the way work was done; the way the workforce was utilized to increase the output; and the productivity of the goods and services produced. This theme reached its peak during Second World War.

After World War II, with the improved human conditions, working man began to demand that the work environment meet some of their social needs in addition to needs for survival and security. This impelled management to search for a strategy to meet this new requirement. That is how the second theme emerged and this is the human relation approach, where the focus was on man's social needs and ways of meeting those social needs to increase motivation and productivity. This second theme continued into fifties.

In the late fifties and early sixties another new theme emerged for developing people for higher responsibilities. Improvements in benefit programs, increase in mandatory retirements, and the rapid organization expansion, intensified the need for planned management succession and development program. This increasing complexity of the organization, decentralization of the decision making, the growth of sophisticated computer and geographic expansion all combined to call for managerial attention to the development of more effective information systems.

In the mid-sixties the theme started changing again. The new one started focussing on total system change along a variety of dimensions. This theme focuses on system examination – looking at the organization as a complex human system with a unique character, its own culture, and a value system. This character, the culture, the

values, as well as the information system and work procedures must be continuously examined, analyzed and improved if optimum productivity and motivation are to result.

This new theme addresses the following issues:

How we can optimally mobilize human resources and energy to achieves organizational mission and at the same time maintain a viable growing organization of people whose personal need for self worth, growth and satisfaction are significantly met at work.

Let us see what is happening on Indian scenario in business and industry. The national newspaper is today full of news items like joint venture, equity participation, collaboration, and expansion, the organizational re-structuring of all kinds and modernization plan.

All these activities are taking place in the face of recessionary trends in the economy, but in the wake of deregulation of the licensing regime. These activities are nothing but a part of organizational strategy planing to take advantage of government open door policies for privatization, encouraging efficiency and competitiveness.

Deregulation of licenses and controls as the hallmark of the Government Policy for making the country global is going to prove a difficult phenomenon for all Indian organization, which so far functioned under control on Government finances.

No budgetary supports are available to PSU. Joint venture, equity participation, and restructuring are some of the readily available strategies, which all organizations are resorting to in order to meet the challenges of competition. CEOs of PSUs today have a different perception of profit. Profit today spells survival.

Thanks to the burgeoning liberalization, the annual budgets are always trying to provide boost to the Indian Economy to enable it to become global, increasing the purchasing power of the Indian people.

Big organizations are responding to the demands of change in their own ways and gearing themselves up with their own strategy. But this must be the order of the day for the organization that wants to survive in today's market driven economy where the presence of the multinationals is a great threat to the survival of the small companies.

National organizations are trying to be multinational, or mega-national, and reputed multinationals are trying to organize take-over bids in order to be leaders in the field.

Take the example of NTPC, ONGC, and EIL. They are today looking outwards and exploring the ways to join hands with world leaders for developing projects and venturing into exports. They intend to go global to tide over its funding problems and take the advantage of the economies of scale and or expertise of the foreign partner in the relevant market.

Likewise Tatas have entered a non-conventional but a new and expanding field that of Information Technology in a joint venture with the world famous name, IBM.

We can also quote the recent strategic merger of TOMCO with HLL and another historic alliance of Godrej Soap with P&G. Simultaneously, there has been a change in the attitude of all the ranks of the organization involved, when developing strategies to meet the challenges of the expanding market. This attitudinal change is essential from the point of view of the internal health of the organization in order to be able to cope with the challenges.

OD strategies or the HRD plank are the only ways, which can help the organizations to be internally healthy and efficient and develop the much-needed competitive edge. All this calls for far sightedness on the part of the CEO.

In the case of TELCO, we know that the company is able to book more than one Lac orders for its new passenger car 'INDICA' and achieve physical breakeven point within a week and that too in the highly competitive market, which is already reeling under the worst ever recession. This shows the vision and determined effort of TELCO to meet its commitment.

TELCO cars will be known for its quality-tested products. This is the reflection not only on the quality of TELCO products but also on the effectiveness of the organizational functioning.

The effective functioning is turning increasingly difficult in today's internal and external environments that are dynamic in nature. The last few decades may be described as decades of explosion.

1. **Knowledge explosion**: More new knowledge in technology has been developed in the last few decades, than in the history of mankind.

2. **Technological explosion**: Due to increase in technological knowledge and sophistication, it has been estimated that most scientist are technically obsolete 10 years after graduation from a technical graduate school.
3. **Communication explosion**: Shortened distances make it quite possible to travel back and forth across an ocean in a few hours. Instant news on television affects all polices and planning.
4. **Economic explosion**: The change in the nature of the work force is the increase in the professionalism. Today, company loyalty is, in large segment of organizations, being replaced by professional loyalty. Today's engineers or computer specialist or personnel specialist is a member of a fraternity of specialists. His membership in this society is more important than his membership in a particular organization. This has got a formidable implication for the reward system, recruiting and training. More and more professionals see the opportunities of moving out of the subsistence category and towards a condition in which they can lead a more dignified life. This means that consequences of managerial act are quite different. The need for dialog, e.g., between members of junior management and member of the work force, is much greater today than when each stayed in his own class compartment and communicated only in terms of work tasks.

The changing values is another condition and is perhaps even more important than the above mentioned dynamic conditions and changing business environment. Many values are changing dramatically as the human condition improves:

1. Man is and should be more independent/autonomous.
2. Man has and should have choices in his work and in his leisure.
3. Security needs should be made. Man should be striving to meet higher order needs for self worth and for realizing his own potential.
4. If man's individual needs are in conflict with organization's requirement, he may and perhaps should choose to meet his own needs.
5. The organization should so organize work that tasks are meaningful and stimulated, and thus provide both non-monetary and monetary rewards.
6. The power previously vested in the bosses should be reduced. With choices in work and leisure, manager should manage by influence (appropriate behavior), rather than through force or withholding of the financial rewards.

Questions:

1. 'Indian organizations need to select OD as their change strategy'-----Discuss.
2. OD is a newly emerging discipline. -----Elaborate.

CASE STUDIES

CASE NO. 1: Meeting the Challenges of the Next Century

There are many areas where organizational change will affect the management of human resources at all levels in the years ahead. One area is the career ladder, where successful managers are often finding that the road to the top is a lot slower than it used to be. "Hurry up and wait" appears to have been replaced by "Hurry up and succeed". In contrasting the organization managers in 1970's and 80's with today's manage, some of the primary difference appear to be these:

1. Every career move used to be directed towards promotion up the hierarchy but now lateral moves are becoming more routine and, in some cases, even desirable;

2. promotions often used to come every two years but now they come more slowly and while the job title may not change, it is likely that the responsibility will;

3. success used to mean job security all the way to retirement but today it often means inner fulfillment and money; and

4. the workweek used to be forty hours but now it lasts till the job is done - however long that may take.

In addition, there are other changes that warrant mention. One is the trend towards fewer management levels and the reduction in the overall number of managers in industry, which means slower and fewer promotions. A second is the plateauing of female participation in the labor force. This change is partially accounted for by a desire to stay at home, raise a family, and work either part time or a personally acceptable schedule, which means a change in the way organizations recruit and staff some of their positions

One of the most upsetting of these changes is the slow promotion rate. More firms are moving from a bureaucracy with rewards tied to time on the job to a meritocracy where people are rewarded for their effective performance. In measuring the latter, organizations are leaving people in their jobs for a longer period of time so that they can see how well the person has really done. A pet food-marketing manager put it this way, "I got to see the effects of change made and worked through their

implications. It helped me learn to approach every job as a long term opportunity, to stand back and ask 'what changes we need to make in this whole picture, even if it has been done one way for the last 15 years." Others point out that it will become more important to be a generalist than specialist will. An executive search recruiter recently noted, " In the future every body will have strategic I with everybody else, and the executive who thrive will be well – rounded. You can't be a specialist at senior levels anymore."

Does this means that today's managers are pleased with the new trends and that they are more committed to the organization than ever? Hardly. A recent poll comparing managerial responses in 60's, and 30 years later found that, on average, today's managers rank their companies lower in virtually every category, including advancement opportunity, job security, a place to work, and job satisfaction. The only category that was fairly close was job satisfaction. Of the four categories, it is the only one that is most under the personal control of the manager. Simply put, career opportunities are not as good as they were previously, but managers are learning to live with the situation.

1. In what way will new flatter organization structures affect the career potential of managers?
2. Is the trend towards slower promotion good or bad? Why?
3. How can OD be used to help individuals handle career-planing problems? Give some examples.

Case No.2 :The High Priced OD Consultant

The corporate personnel office told the middle management of large firm that a group of consultant would be calling on them later in the week. The purpose of the consultant's visit would be to analyze inter-group relations through out the firm.

The firm had been very effective in using an OD intervention called team building. Their particular approach used six steps. When their approach was explained to the managers, a great deal of tension was relieved. They had initially thought that team building was lot of hocus-pocus, like sensitivity training, where people attack each other and let out their aggression by helping abuse on those they dislike.

By the same token, these managers generally felt that perhaps the consultants were not needed. One of them put it this way: "Now that we understand what is involved in team building, we can go ahead and conduct the sessions our selves. All we have to do is to choose a manager who is liked by everyone and put him in the role of change agent/consultant. After all, you really don't need a high priced consultant to do this team building stuff. You just have to have a good feel for human nature." The other managers generally agreed. However, the corporate personnel director turned down their suggestion. He hired the consultant to do the team building.

1. What is a team building approach to organization development? Do you think managers had an accurate view of the technique?
2. Do you think the managers had an accurate view of the role of external consultant? Do you agree or disagree with the corporate personnel director's decision to turn down their suggestions? Why?

Case No.3 :OD Intervention in XYZ Engineering Company

XYZ was an Engineering Company of repute; an ongoing concern with its main plant operating concerns in Central India. The plant employed 9000 employees, including about 2500 supervisors and 4000 workmen. The Head of HRD was an ambitious, creative, proactive enthusiast who believed in the application of behavioral sciences in organization systems for problem solving, creativity and motivation. He was keen to get a study done on the organizational characteristics relating to managerial styles in the plant. He approached the plant management and obtained their approval to go ahead with the study. The details are as under:

Purpose of the study:

a) To know the status of managerial styles in the plant.

b) To identify the desirable management style, which would help, improve effectiveness in the working of the plant.

The methodology used:

a) Data collection through questionnaires and interviews.

b) Coverage of 52% of executives, managers, and above from the main stream of operations, R & D activities, administrative services, etc.

The sample covered only managers and above, specifically because managerial styles at this level were considered to be significant for their influence on the motivational climate in the plant management.

c) Survey feedback

d) Training & Development programs – five courses were identified for managers and above. Courses were phased out over three years.

Design of the 5 course:

- Leadership
- Motivation
- Communication
- Decision making
- Control processes

The survey

Data collection: Rensis Likert's management systems based instrument was developed and administered on the executives. The instruments include 51 variables under eight broad categories, i.e. Leadership, Motivation, Communication, Interaction Influence, Decision making, Goal setting, Control processes, and Performance Goal and Training. Each of these variables had enumerative statements of the ways in which behavior and attitude are manifested in the four main systems, what Rensis Likert called

i. Exploitive authoritarian
ii. Benevolent authoritarian
iii. Consultative
iv. Participative

A write up on Likert's four systems was also put up before the management of the plant for perusal and information. The CEO of the company gave full support to the survey, organizing of all top, middle and junior management and exhorting them to participate fully in the study by HRD group to make a success of it. The instrument was administered on all the managers and top executives, along with a checklist of training programs on five areas; viz. Leadership, motivation, communication, decision making and control processes. The respondents were expected the courses they would themselves like to attend as also the courses they would like their subordinates to attend.

Survey feedback: The data was collected diagnosed/analyzed and then presented by the HOD of HRD before the CEO and the top management. The data was used as the basis for all training (internal) courses, in the five areas mentioned above, based on Likert's model. The courses were phased out over a period of three years, covering all the managers and above. A program-wise list of managers was prepared for organizing the courses.

The objective: To strive in the direction of organizational change for participative managerial style for achieving organizational excellence.

The Pay off: These programs with the CEO's professional style of functioning made dent in the managerial style towards participative style.

Q Critically analyzes and give suggestions that weather what they have adopted was aright step.

CASE No.4 : MAX PHOTO FILM MANUFACTURING COMPANY

Until recently Max Photo Film Manufacturing Company has done well. The marketing department has been receiving a flood of orders for its photo films from customers, scattered through out the country. To meet the demand, the production department has expanded its operation considerably. The company has sufficient funds to meet every eventuality. Raw materials were available in abundance. Meanwhile, the personnel department kept itself busy in administering various kinds of tests before selecting people to man various positions in the organization.

It is all part of history now. Nowadays things have changed dramatically, affecting the performance of all branches in the organization seriously. Raw materials have disappeared from the market. Resource constraints have cropped up overnight. The company had to crumble under the weight of these scarcities. It had to cut down its sales inevitably. To add to its woes, government had instructed all companies to follow the reservation policy strictly while hiring new employees. As a result, the personnel department had to bury its program concerning selection tests in files.

The chief executive is in fix. He wants to come out of this. The need for an effective program of OD is acutely felt all over. Uncertainties have perplexed employee brains for a painfully long time. They are now in a state of turmoil. Interdepartmental and inter-personnel conflict have soared. Cracks have appeared in every area of organizational performance. In order to cement the loopholes and improve its prospects, the company is seriously thinking of introducing an ambitious OD program

1 If you were entrusted with the responsibility of designing an organizational development program, what kind of program would you advocate? Why?

2 What problems and prospects do you foresee in the implementation of such a program?

MODEL QUESTION PAPER

PART A

Answer any FIVE questions $5 \times 8 = 40$

1. In Indian context what are some of the major forces for change that are confronting today's organization?
2. What are some of the major characteristics of OD?
3. Discuss the importance of team building in an organization
4. Do you agree that future of OD is bright and exciting? Do you have anything to add to this view?
5. "The number of OD interventions is large." Comment on this statement.
6. Briefly analyse the survey feedback intervention of OD in an organization.
7. Sensitivity training is one of the controversial interventions of OD. But it is popular. Why?.
8. Describe briefly Action Research as a process.

SECTION B

Answer any FOUR questions **$4 \times 15 = 60$**

1. Short notes on:
   - Structural interventions
   - RAT Intervention
   - Implementation and assessment of OD program
2. In your own words describe approaches of OD with their major advantages and limitations.
3. Describe the Grid Development training program in an organization.
4. "For successful implementation of OD an organization should follow certain Ethical standards." Describe.
5. How will you evaluate OD performance?
6. Describe briefly the key issues and considerations which has effective OD implementations.
7. "Indian organizations needs to select OD as their new strategy." Desc

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